

HIGHROADS OF HISTORY

SEVENTH
BOOK



THOMAS NELSON AND SONS

167



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Picton's Division leaving Brussels for Waterloo, June 16, 1815.

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“The midnight brought the signal sound of strife,
The morn the marshalling in arms.” — *Byron.*

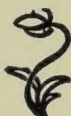
THE ROYAL SCHOOL SERIES

Highroads of History

Book VII.

Highroads of British History
(to the close of the Nineteenth Century)

With an Introductory Poem by Rudyard Kipling
and an Epilogue by the Right Hon.
The Earl of Rosebery, K.G.



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THE CHILDREN'S SONG.

By Rudyard Kipling.

LAND OF OUR BIRTH, WE PLEDGE TO THEE
OUR LOVE AND TOIL IN THE YEARS TO BE,
WHEN WE ARE GROWN AND TAKE OUR PLACE
AS MEN AND WOMEN WITH OUR RACE.

*Father in Heaven, who lovest all,
Oh help Thy children when they call;
That they may build from age to age
An undefiled heritage.*

*Teach us to bear the yoke in youth
With steadfastness and careful truth;
That, in our time, Thy grace may give
The truth whereby the nations live.*

*Teach us to rule ourselves alway,
Controlled and cleanly night and day;
That we may bring, if need arise,
No maimed or worthless sacrifice.*

*Teach us to look, in all our ends,
On Thee for judge, and not our friends;
That we, with Thee, may walk uncowed
By fear or favour of the crowd.*

*Teach us the Strength that cannot seek,
By deed or thought, to hurt the weak;
That, under Thee, we may possess
Man's strength to comfort man's distress.*

*Teach us Delight in simple things,
And Mirth that has no bitter springs,
Forgiveness free of evil done,
And Love to all men 'neath the sun!*

LAND OF OUR BIRTH, OUR FAITH, OUR PRIDE,
FOR WHOSE DEAR SAKE OUR FATHERS DIED—
O MOTHERLAND, WE PLEDGE TO THEE
HEAD, HEART, AND HAND THROUGH THE YEARS TO BE.

*(By kind permission of the Author
and of the Earl of Meath.)*

P R E F A C E.

IN this small volume the writer attempts the extremely difficult task of imparting to school pupils of twelve or thirteen years, who have already been made familiar with some of the great figures and outstanding events of the national story, some general idea of our history as a continuous record.

The problem is to connect the history "stories" in such a manner that the young pupil will obtain some notion of continuity, and a clear idea of the instinctive efforts of the British nation first to consolidate and establish itself within its island home, and then, because of pressing necessity, to expand beyond its sea-girt borders until it became not only a royal but also an imperial people.

It is only by keeping this general idea clearly before the mind of the pupil that we can enable him, to some extent, to grasp our history as a whole. This little book has, therefore, been divided into three distinct portions, dealing in turn with the founding, the settlement, and the expansion of the British nation. An attempt has been made to deal not with English history

alone, but to show how the inhabitants of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, after many "blows and knocks," did actually combine to form one united nation, and then set to work together to found, not an English, but a British Empire.

In following out this main idea much picturesque detail must be sacrificed ; but it is assumed that the pupil has been already shown the personal and adventurous side of the national story, and that the way has been prepared for taking the wider view. The social life of the people must also be neglected in such a broad treatment, so far, at least, as the letterpress is concerned. But it may be pointed out that the pictures and side sketches of this volume, which have been carefully selected, reveal this aspect of our history more vividly than is possible by means of mere written description. As the pupil goes on with the story he will be able to see by the help of the pictures what kind of people he is reading about, how they looked, how they dressed, and in what manner they conducted the external details of their lives.



Burghers of the fourteenth century.



A fourteenth century house.

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HIGHROADS OF BRITISH HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

WE are going to read in this book something about the great men and women who have helped to guide and govern the British nation throughout the long course of its history. The complete story of the foundation and growth of the nation is a long and complicated one, and we cannot here trace it in detail. That is a matter for more advanced books of history. We must keep, as it were, to the highroad, and leave the by-paths for future exploration.

At the outset it will be well to get some general idea of the direction taken by this "highroad" over which we mean to travel, and of the goal to which it leads; or, to put the matter in another way, we must gain in this introductory chapter some general notion of the greater movements in our history before we proceed to consider the efforts and achievements of the men who were the life and soul of those movements.



In the group of islands which form our home, and which lie close to the European mainland, we have a great modern nation known to all the world as the British. Like the other great nations of the world, it was originally built up of people from several different races ; and our primary duty will be to find out of what elements this British nation has been composed.

We must, in the first place, get to know something about the Ancient Britons, who lived in the land at what we might fitly call the dawn of its history, some two thousand years ago ; and we must see what were the relations between these people and the powerful nation of the Romans, of whose great empire Britain once formed a part.

Then we shall watch the coming of the German tribes known as the Angles and Saxons from the other side of the North Sea, and trace the result of the conflict between them and the people who already held this land of ours. We must pay special attention to these yellow-haired sea-rovers, for it was they who were destined to form the backbone of the nation.

Next there came to these islands other sea-rovers known as the Danes or Norsemen, whose homes were also on the other side of the North Sea. After them came the Normans, who were originally Norse vikings, but who had established themselves in the north of the land now known as France. Each of



Roman soldiers.

these races, and especially the Normans, played a prominent part in the founding of our nation ; at one time, indeed, it seemed as if the country would become Norman-French rather than English.

It was during the reign of the luckless King John of England, who occupied the throne seven centuries ago, that Normandy and England were finally separated, as we shall see later. This marks an epoch in the history of our country. The islands of Britain were now practically cut off from Europe. They contained all the chief elements of which the modern nation is composed—Gaelic, British, Anglo-Saxon, Danish, and Norman-French ; and the next part of the national story deals with the welding of these different races into one more or less united people. Up to the reign of King John the English Channel was not a real boundary, but there were several racial boundaries within the British Islands themselves. After that time the Channel was for all practical purposes the British boundary to the southward, and the internal boundaries were slowly broken down.

This breaking down took a considerable time. Ireland, Wales, the Scottish Highlands, the Scottish Lowlands, and England each developed a distinct and separate character of its own. Before these various portions were united under one central government, many stern blows were struck, as we shall see. But



Norman soldiers

when the great Queen Elizabeth died, four centuries after the time of King John, there was unity of a kind within the borders of Britain.

Wales and England, after much fighting and rivalry, had for some time formed one country under one monarch. Scotland and England, after the death of Elizabeth, passed under the rule of one king, without any hint of submission on either side. Ireland had been subdued in some degree by the rulers of England. After the days of Queen Elizabeth there was not much more fighting among the various peoples within the limits of the British Isles.



Queen Elizabeth.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth thus stands at the beginning of a new era in British history. From her time we can trace two great historical movements. One was the settlement of the form of government best suited to the character of the nation. The other was the expansion of the nation beyond the borders of the British Isles, not on the continent of Europe, but in new lands far across the sea. These two great movements went on, to a great extent, side by side; but the form of government was practically settled before the attention of the people of Britain was seriously directed to settlement in other lands.

Here, then, is the rough outline which we must keep before us in reading this book, as it forms a key to the whole story:—



WILLIAM PRINCE OF ORANGE LANDING AT TORBAY.

(From the painting by J. M. W. Turner, R.A., in the National Gallery.)

As we shall see in a later chapter, the coming of Prince William was one of the most important events in the settlement of "the form of government best suited to the character of the nation."

16 HIGHROADS OF BRITISH HISTORY.

1. The Founding of the Nation.
2. The Settlement of the Nation.
3. The Expansion of the Nation.

We shall divide our book into three portions, under the above titles respectively, so that we may not, in considering detail, lose sight of the general outline which is to serve as our guide.

But while we are tracing the history of the British people, we must not forget to consider the position of the nation among the other great nations of the world. We cannot understand the history of Britain without some knowledge of the other countries of Western Europe. The map reminds us that the British Isles are part of Europe in a geographical sense; and we shall see that many of the events of British history are only part of wider European movements. At times, too, and especially in the latter portion of our story, we shall find the British nation deeply concerned in movements even wider than those of Western Europe. We shall see more distant parts of the world brought into close relationship with our own country. This will serve to remind us that Britain is not only a great European state, but a great World state also.



Windsor Castle.

PART I.

THE FOUNDING OF THE NATION.

Chapter I.

BRITONS AND ROMANS.

WE know little of the first inhabitants of the British Isles. All that we can learn from history is that they were short in stature, that they had dark hair and swarthy skins, and that they lived in a very rude and primitive way. They knew nothing of agriculture, and they provided food for themselves by fishing in the rivers and by hunting in the forests, which then covered the greater part of the land. They used weapons of flint and bone, and they were, on the whole, the type of people whom we are accustomed to call savages.

Some seven or eight hundred years before the birth of Christ there came to our land from Western Europe a race of people known as the Celts. They drove northward and westward the old savage race, and in



In the earliest days.

time took possession of the two main islands. The Celts appear to have crossed over to Britain in two great migrations. The earlier comers, who are distinguished in history as the Gaels, were driven westward in their turn by the Britons, as we call those who came later. The Gaels made their homes in Ireland and in the north and west of Scotland, where they mixed with the older inhabitants of the country, while the Britons held the more level lands of the island now known as Great Britain.

Both the Gaels and the Britons were more civilized than the rude tribes who preceded them, but they still showed many signs of savagery. They fought fiercely among themselves, decorated with brilliant "war paint," and they put their captives to death as a sacrifice to their gods. But they knew how to till the fields, and how to make boats and use them. They knew how to employ money in trading—a sure sign of advancement in civilization; and they kept great herds of cattle, which they fed in the forest clearings. They had also among them a class of men known as Druids, who appear to have acted as priests, teachers, and judges of the people.



A Druid.

While these movements were going on in Britain, there were living in the south of Europe certain nations which had attained to a high degree of civilization. These were the Greeks and the Romans. They knew little or nothing, however, of



Ancient Britons Trading with Phœnicians.

(From the mural painting by Lord Leighton, P.R.A., in the Royal Exchange, London. By permission of the Gresham Committee.)

the lands far away to the north-west. An early Greek historian speaks of the British Isles as the *Tin* Islands, and a later writer of Rome tells how this precious metal could be obtained "in a certain obscure corner of the West." We find a few lines in an early Roman poem, telling how a merchant from the great city of Carthage in North Africa came to certain islands in the Atlantic, where he obtained tin and lead. These were probably what are now known as the Scilly Isles. The tidings of this precious merchandise appear to have attracted other merchants to the south of Britain; for a trade in tin afterwards sprang up with Southern Europe, and later with the north of France, which was then known as Gaul.



A Gaulish horseman.

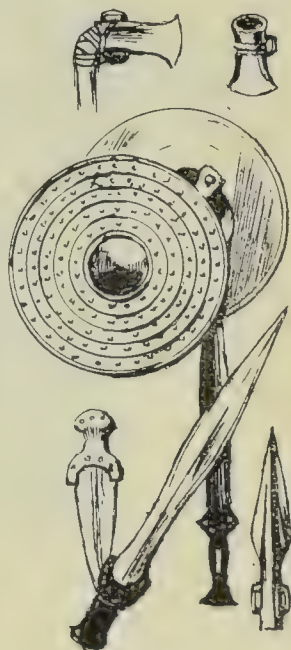
About fifty years before the birth of Christ a great Roman general named Julius Cæsar was engaged in conquering the northern portion of Gaul. When this work had been completed, he determined to cross over the sea and invade Britain, the country of which he had heard in travellers' tales. So he embarked with two legions or regiments of Roman soldiers, and landed near Dover. The Britons of the neighbourhood gathered to resist him, and gave such a good account of themselves that he went back to Gaul without having effected anything. But in the following year Cæsar returned with a larger army, and having forced the passage of the Thames, burned the village where his foes had entrenched themselves. Some of the

British princes made submission to him, but he was obliged to go back to Gaul without having made any permanent conquest.

Nearly a hundred years passed away before the Britons were again visited by the Romans. Julius Cæsar had gone back to Rome, where he was assassinated by his enemies. Rome, which had been a republic, passed under the rule of an emperor, whose power extended over all the countries round about the Mediterranean Sea. But though Britain lay outside the great Roman Empire, there was now a certain amount of intercourse between Rome and "that obscure corner of the West."

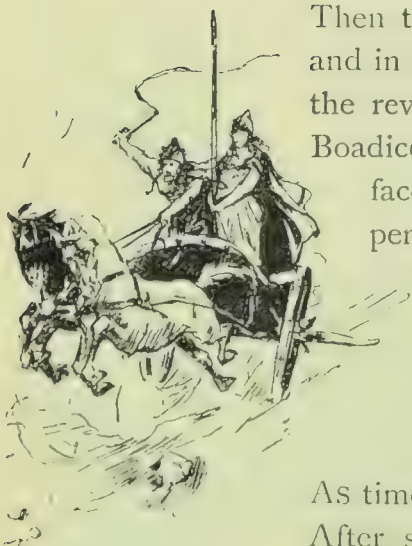
Roman traders crossed the "narrow seas," bringing the luxuries of the Mediterranean lands to the people of Southern Britain, who had now made some advance in civilization. And more than once a British chieftain found his way to the distant city of Rome to ask help against the enemies of his own race from the great emperor who ruled "the world."

For some time the Romans did not interfere in these tribal wars of the Britons, but in the year 43 A.D. the Emperor Claudius Cæsar took advantage of the quarrels to send a Roman army into the island. This force soon overran Kent and the Thames valley, which contained the chief settlements of the more civilized Britons. Before long the Romans pushed their way northward to the Humber and westward to the Severn,

*Julius Cæsar.**British weapons.*

and the greater part of Southern Britain became a "province" of the empire. There was little real resistance to this conquest, except among the mountains of Wales, where the Britons made a determined stand ; and while the Roman army was engaged in the hard task of subduing them, the tribes in Norfolk and Suffolk also rose against the invaders.

They were led by their brave queen Boadicea, who, with her daughters, had been cruelly treated by the conquerors after the death of her husband, and they massacred all the Romans within their reach. Other tribes joined them, and the Roman settlements were sacked and the settlers slain with savage cruelty. Then the Roman general marched back from Wales, and in a great battle defeated the Britons and crushed the revolt. When she saw that all hope was gone, Boadicea, it is said, put an end to her life rather than face the vengeance of the conqueror. This happened about sixty years after the birth of Christ.



Boadicea.

Chapter II.

ROMAN RULE.

As time went on the Romans continued their conquest. After subduing North Wales and Yorkshire, one of their generals, named Julius Agricola, marched into Scotland, where he defeated the Gaelic tribes of the



THE COMING OF THE ROMANS TO BRITAIN.
(From the painting by Thomas Davidson.)

Highlands. He carried the Roman frontier northward to the region of the Forth and Clyde, building a chain of forts between the two firths to keep back the mountain tribes. The general was planning an expedition against the Gaels of Ireland when he was recalled to Rome by the emperor, who was jealous of his success.

Agricola did much to make the Britons respect the Roman rule. For he was not merely a soldier; he was also a wise statesman, and under his influence many of the British chieftains adopted a more civilized mode of life. So well did he rule the land that many people from the Continent came to live in the Roman towns of Britain.

But he was not able to bring the wild tribes of the Scottish Highlands under Roman rule, and they often made raids upon the more settled parts of the country. In order to prevent this, the Emperor Hadrian, who came himself on a visit to Britain, built a great stone wall right across the north of England, from the mouth of the Tyne to the head of the Solway. This "Wall of Hadrian" was of enormous strength, and was furnished at intervals with forts, which were garrisoned by Roman soldiers.

Once more the tribes of the Scottish Lowlands were brought under the Roman sway, and another wall was erected, from the Forth to the Clyde, following the line of Agricola's forts. This was for the most



On the Roman Wall.

part a mere earthwork with a fosse or ditch, and not a finished structure like the Wall of Hadrian. An attempt was made to bring the Caledonians, as the Gaelic tribes were called, under Roman rule; but it was abandoned, and the Highlands of Scotland never formed part of the Roman province of Britannia.

The Romans ruled in Britain for three hundred and sixty years. They took the land by force, and they held it by the sword. The British people adopted their language and ways of life only in great military and commercial centres, such as York, Chester, and London. Here could be found fine dwelling-houses, temples, baths, and public buildings, while the people lived the civilized life of Rome itself. But in the open country the Britons were little changed by the Roman conquest. They lived in small huts of wattle and clay, fished in the rivers, hunted in the forests, raised a little corn, and worshipped the old gods of their fathers, paying particular reverence to the sun as the great source of light and life.

The Romans were skilful and patient engineers, and as time went on they worked great changes in their province of Britain. They made broad and well-laid roads, felling the forests and bridging the rivers which happened to lie in the way. These roads crossed the southern part of Britain from north to south and from east to west. One ran from London through Lincoln and York, and thence into Scotland; another from



A British home.



A Roman bridge.

London to Chester; and a third from London to Bath. The foundations of some of these Roman roads still remain, and have formed the basis for modern highways.



A Romano-British interior.

These busy people searched all over the country for minerals, and found lead, tin, and copper, which they exported to Rome. They established fisheries on the coasts, and near the mouth of the Thames obtained oysters which yielded pearls of considerable value. They cleared the land, and grew grain in such quantities that they were able to export corn to Gaul. And merchants came not only from Gaul and Italy, but also from Greece and Egypt, to share in the prosperous trade with Roman Britain. Many of the merchants who settled in this country built themselves fine villas with marble pillars, floors of mosaic, and other luxuries of architecture. These houses were provided with spacious baths, and many of them had ingenious apparatus for heating; for the Romans, accustomed to the warm climate of Italy, found the northern winter very trying.

In time, however, disasters began to fall upon the Roman province of Britannia. The firm rule of the foreign masters was gradually weakened owing to dissensions in the imperial city of Rome. Britain was now sorely troubled by foes of three different kinds. There were the wild tribes of North Britain, called by the Romans Picts, or "painted men," because they kept up the old British custom of painting their





A ROMAN EMPEROR VISITING A POTTERY IN BRITAIN.
(From the painting by Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, R.A. By
permission of the Artist.)

bodies when they went forth to battle. There were also the Scots of Northern Ireland, who made many piratical descents on the western shores; and there were the terrible vikings from the Baltic lands, who made savage raids upon the eastern coasts of Britain.

As the Roman rule grew weaker these foes grew bolder, and in time they advanced into the very heart of the province. The Roman soldiers were withdrawn, one legion after another, to share in the fighting that was going on nearer the centre of their dying empire; and at last the Roman emperor sent a message to Britain informing its people that they must now look after themselves.

Some of the chief men in the towns of Roman Britain sent piteous messages to Rome asking for help against the invaders of the island. "The barbarians drive us into the sea," they wrote, "and the sea drives

us back on to the spears and swords of the barbarians. Our only choice is whether we shall die by the sword or drown, for there is none to save us." But no help was sent in response to this piteous appeal. Britain was left to her fate. What that fate was we shall see in our next chapter.



In a Roman villa.

Chapter III.

THE ENGLISH FOLK.

BETWEEN the time of Cæsar and the departure of the Romans from this country some of the Britons, as we have seen, had made great advances in civilization. Many of them, too, had become Christians, having first learned the story of Christ from teachers who appear to have come from the Continent. The work of these missionaries was continued by native Britons. Among these were St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland, who was born near Dumbarton, on the Clyde; and St. David, who became later the patron saint of Wales.

Compared with these people, the invading tribes from the other side of the North Sea were wholly savage and uncivilized. They were roving, wandering tribes, the "vikings" or sea-warriors of song and story, having their homes on the shores of the Baltic and the North Sea, but never more at home than when a favouring breeze drove their dragon-prowed vessels to some rich foreign coast which promised abundance of plunder. We have already seen how they troubled the eastern coasts of the Roman province of Britain. They were known to the Britons of the Roman towns simply as "barbarians," and from what we know of their mode of life the term seems to be apt enough. The virtue which they most esteemed was physical

*A viking.*

*A viking ship.*

courage, while cowardice was accounted the greatest vice. Those who fell in battle were believed to be admitted to Valhalla, the palace of their gods, where, feasting and fighting in turn, they enjoyed unending bliss. They worshipped many gods, whose names are still preserved in our names for the days of the week ; the Sun and the Moon ; Tiu, the one-armed, the god of battles and giver of victory ; Woden, the all-wise, the reputed founder of their race ; Thor, the thunderer, the god of strength ; and Freya, the goddess of love and peace.

Yet these rough strangers were destined to be the founders of the English race. Let us trace in outline the story of their settlement in the land which was soon to be named England, after one of the tribes which came to live in it.

*Scots.*

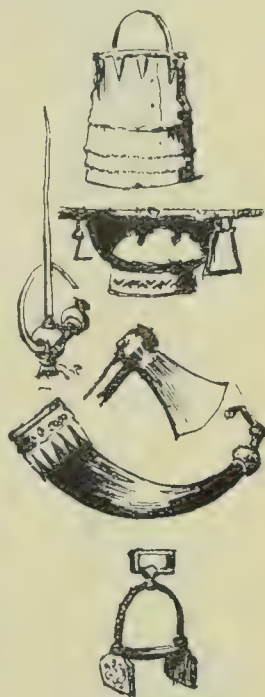
There is a legend which tells how Vortigern, who ruled the south-eastern corner of Britain, was so troubled by the Picts of Scotland and the Scots of Ireland that he asked the aid of some of the viking chiefs. Foreseeing plunder, bands of a tribe known as Jutes came in answer to his call, under the leadership of two brothers, Hengist and Horsa. With the help of these allies the wild Picts and Scots were driven back ; but the Britons soon found that this did not improve matters, for their allies now became their foes, and wrested from them a large district in East Kent, in which they made a perma-

ment home for themselves. This was, so far as we know, the first settlement of these vikings in this country. It was made about the year 450 A.D.

The land in which the Jutes had established themselves appeared to them a veritable land of promise. Tidings of their good fortune soon reached their kindred across the North Sea, and great numbers of them came over to win a share of the good things. The most prominent of these were the tribes known as the Angles and the Saxons. The Angles took possession of the eastern portions of Britain, while the Saxons sailed up Southampton Water, and from the head of that inlet made raids upon the country to the east and the west.

The Britons stoutly resisted each incursion, until they were at last finally overwhelmed at a place called Cattraeth—which has been identified by some historians with Catterick Bridge, near Richmond, in Yorkshire. Here they made a united stand against the “barbarians,” but their valour was of no avail. After this great battle the Britons withdrew to the western mountains, and many of them crossed the English Channel and settled in that part of France which is still called after them, Brittany. The “English folk” then held the plains victorious from the Firth of Forth to the English Channel.

Of course the new occupants of the country did not understand the speech of the people whom they had



Anglo-Saxon utensils.



A British cromlech.

dispossessed. They called the speakers of it "Welsh"—that is, foreigners or strangers. The name remains to this day, although we apply it to the people of only one portion of the western lands to which the Britons retreated. The greater part of the conquered land fell into the hands of the Angles, who seem to have been superior to the other tribes in several respects. So the new country came in time to be called Angle-land or England, and its people the English.

The work of conquest and settlement lasted for about a hundred and fifty years. When it was over, the English began to farm the lands which they had won, and to resume the manner of life to which they had been accustomed in their old homes on the other side of the North Sea. A few families closely related to one another would settle down to form a *ham*, or home or village, such as Westerham in Kent. Each head of a family had his mud cottage and a portion of land sufficient to grow his corn. On the outskirts of the village were the lands used in common by all the villagers to pasture their cattle. The English folk were no lovers of towns or cities; they preferred the open air and the free life of the country.

When war against a neighbouring tribe was to be undertaken, certain men called *ealdormen* or eldermen were chosen to lead the fighters. After a time,



On the common.

however, the English tribes began to unite under kings; but these kings were always chosen for their qualities of leadership in war and in peace. They not only reigned but ruled. The king appears always to have acted, however, upon the advice of a body of counsellors known as the "Wise Men." These advisers formed a kind of parliament, the forerunner of our own great national council, and upon the death of a king this body elected his successor.



A Saxon king.

Chapter IV.

THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS.

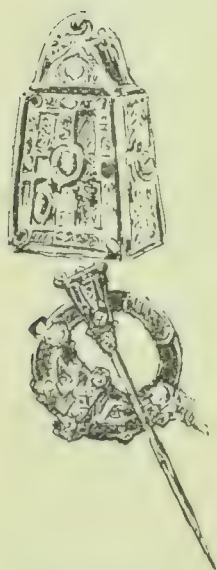
WHILE the English folk were conquering and settling the land from the Firth of Forth to the English Channel, there were other movements in progress of which we must now take note.

We have already mentioned the Scots of Ireland, who, it is said, came originally from Spain. About the beginning of the sixth century they founded a colony in what is now the county of Argyll. Here they set up a little kingdom, and with the help of their kinsmen they soon extended their power towards the north and the east. They had many stern fights with the Picts; but in the end the Scottish king, Kenneth, became ruler of the Picts also, and from this time the

country, which had been named Alban by the Celtic natives and Caledonia by the Romans, was known as the land of the Scots, or Scotland. But for a long time the land immediately south of the Firths of Forth and Clyde lay outside the power of the Scottish kings. The eastern part, afterwards called Lothian, was peopled by men of Anglo-Saxon race, and formed a part of England rather than of Scotland. The western part, Strathclyde and Galloway, remained under the rule of its own British kings.

Meanwhile in Ireland there had also been much fighting, the result of which was the establishment of five separate kingdoms. But in that country the gospel story had long been preached, and many of the warlike tribes had come under the influence of St. Patrick and other devoted servants of the Cross. While Great Britain lay in the darkness of heathenism, Ireland was a centre of Christianity and of learning.

Irish monks lived safe under the protection of the tribal chieftains, spending their time in studying and preaching. Irish teachers travelled to neighbouring lands carrying the glad tidings of the gospel. Some went to Scotland, some to Wales and England, others across the seas to Germany and Italy. From all parts of the civilized world scholars came to be taught by Irish teachers. One Irish monk named Columba founded a monastery on the



Irish ornaments.



Iona.



A GREAT VIKING.
(From a drawing by H. W. Koekkoek.)



island of Iona, off the west coast of Scotland, and this became a centre from which the gospel was carried over Scotland and the north of England.

We must now follow once more the fortunes of the various English tribes which had gained possession of the most fertile parts of Great Britain. As time went on these tribes founded different kingdoms. Thus arose the kingdom of the South Saxons, or Sussex; that of the West Saxons, or Wessex; and that of the East Saxons, or Essex. The Angles set up the kingdom of East Anglia, divided into the land of the North Folk, or Norfolk; and that of the South Folk, or Suffolk. Other settlers founded the kingdom of Northumbria, which extended from the Humber to the Forth. Others, again, established in the central part of England a kingdom known as Mercia—that is, the march-land or “borderland”—so called because it lay next to the lands held by the Britons of the west.

No sooner had these English kingdoms been set up than there began a series of fierce struggles among them to settle which should be master. At first Northumbria was the leading power; then Mercia made itself supreme for a time. By-and-by Egbert, King of Wessex, brought the other kingdoms under his power, although England could not yet be said to form one kingdom. We cannot give the details of these wars. Let us watch instead the progress of another conflict of a very different character.



Augustine preaching to Ethelbert and Bertha.
(From the picture by Stephen B. Carroll.)

We have already seen how Columba, the Irish monk, settled in Iona, and preached the gospel to the Picts and Scots. While this was going on, there landed on the shores of Kent a band of monks from Rome, under a leader named Augustine, by whose preaching the king and the people of that kingdom were converted to Christianity. Northumbria was the next part of the country to become Christian. From the kingdom of Kent an English princess went to marry a king of Northumbria, and she took with her a Christian teacher named Paulinus, who preached the gospel to the fierce tribes of the north.



The chair of Augustine, first Archbishop of Canterbury.

But when the power of Northumbria fell before the heathen king of Mercia, this part of the land fell once more into heathen ways, and the work had to be done over again. A monk named Aidan came from Iona and set up a monastery on Holy Island, off the rocky coast of Northumberland, and the band of Christian teachers who made this place the centre of their work brought the rough people of Northern England once more under the sway of the Prince of Peace. So the work went on until the greater part of England was won over to Christianity, and the power of the gospel helped to unite the tribes quite as much as the sword of the kingdom of Wessex.

It was well that the land had found a leader in Egbert, for from his time Scotland and England began to be sorely troubled by the fierce Norsemen from



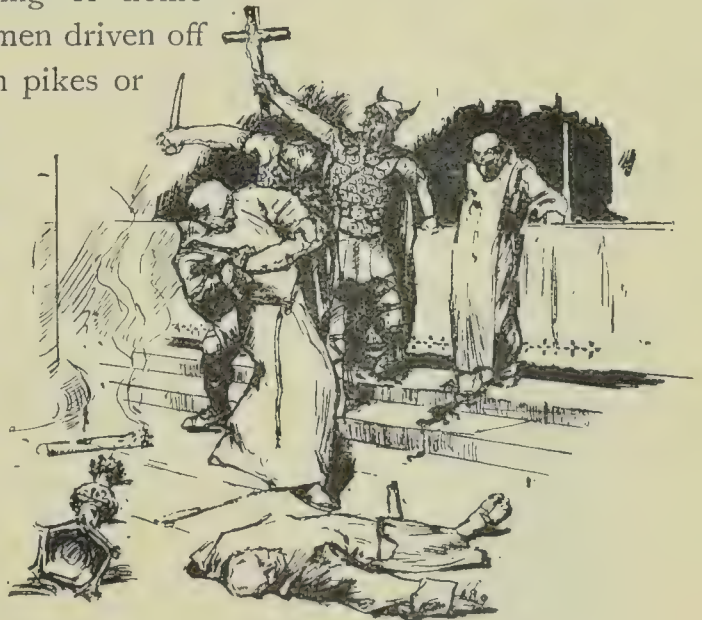
St. Aidan and Italian monk

Denmark and Norway. These raiders, the Danes, as the English called them, came in long black galleys, and landed on various parts of the coast, from the far north of Scotland down to the south-eastern shores of England. Great was the terror of the English tribes at their coming. They were now destined to suffer the same evils as their forefathers had inflicted upon the Britons.

"The first sight of the Northmen," writes an English historian, "is as if the hand on the dial of history had gone back three hundred years. The Norwegian fiords, the Frisian sand-banks, poured forth pirate fleets such as had swept the seas in the days of Hengest and Cerdic. There was the same wild panic as the black boats of the invaders struck inland along the river reaches or moved around the river islets, the same sights of horror—firing of homesteads, slaughter of men, women driven off to slavery, children tossed on pikes or sold in the market-place—as when the English invaders attacked Britain. Christian priests were again slain at the altar by worshippers of Woden; letters, arts, religion, government disappeared before these Northmen as before the Northmen of old."

(1,434)

3



Danes slaying priests at the altar.

Chapter V.

ALFRED THE TRUTH-TELLER.

UP to the present we have been reading of the movements of tribes and races among whom it is not always easy to distinguish the leaders. But we have now reached a period in our story when our attention is to be fixed upon the work of a man who stood, as it were, head and shoulders above his fellows. This was King Alfred, grandson of that Egbert of Wessex who made himself overlord of the other English kings.

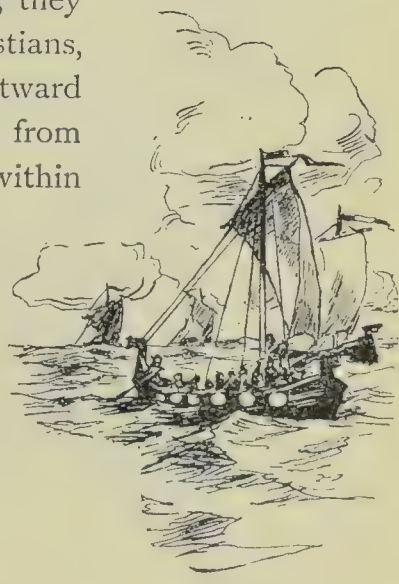
We have not space to give here all the romantic stories that are told of this great king. We must fix our attention upon what he did to unify the country and to uphold the English power. As we have already seen, the British Isles were in his day troubled greatly by the Norsemen. Some of these vikings made homes for themselves in the north and west of Scotland, and others settled in various places on the east coast of Ireland. Those who made the greatest impression upon England were the Danes, who swooped down upon the fertile plains in the east and the south-east. It was with these that King Alfred of Wessex had to deal; and they are of importance in our story, not merely because King Alfred fought bravely against them, but because they made permanent settlements

*Danish raiders*

in England, and so constituted one of the elements which make up the modern British nation.

By the time that Alfred came to the throne the Danes had practically conquered the north and the east of England, and his first task was to secure the independence of his own kingdom of Wessex. At first he made peace with the Danes in order to gain time. The invaders withdrew from Wessex, in accordance with their compact, and occupied the time of truce in extending their power in Central and Eastern England. When they had firmly established themselves in these parts, they marched southward again, took London and Winchester, and drove King Alfred into hiding in the marsh-girt isle of Athelney. There he waited his time.

When he had prepared his plans, the king took the field again and beat the Danes at Ethandun in Wiltshire. By an arrangement with Guthrum, their leader, they were forced to quit Wessex, to be baptized as Christians, and to confine themselves to the lands lying eastward of a line which ran in a somewhat zigzag course from London to Chester. After this there was peace within the borders of Wessex, and those of the Danes who chose to give up their career of pillage and slaughter settled down in the lands apportioned to them. But many of them went off to other countries to carry on their favourite occupation. Those who remained in our country took easily



Danish vessels.

to English ways, being indeed closely akin to the people whose lands they had made their own. The eastern part of the country really gained by their invasion, for they brought to their new home a hardiness both of body and spirit which was of the utmost value in the building up of a strong race.

But all this lay in the future ; the immediate results were very different. The Danish bands had worked great havoc in the land, and King Alfred spent the rest of his life in healing the grievous wounds they had inflicted upon his kingdom. He checked the power of the great lords who had become strong and lawless during the recent troubles ; he set up a national army ; he drew up a code of laws, and enforced obedience to them.

He also encouraged scholars from the Continent, from Wales, and from Ireland to settle in his kingdom. "There is not now," he wrote sadly, "one priest south of the Thames who can properly understand the Latin of his own Church books, and very few in England"—so completely had the Danes swept away all civilization. He had himself a keen interest in learning and literature. Under his guidance English translations were made of certain Latin works, and he caused the monks to compile the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which is one of the chief sources of our knowledge of the life and times of Early England. In order to protect his land from the Norse rovers, he caused ships to be built of



King Alfred in council.



ALFRED INCITING THE SAXONS TO RESIST THE DANES.
(From the work by G. F. Watts, R.A., in *Westminster Palace*.)

*Winchester Cathedral.*

greater size than had yet been seen upon the seas. He encouraged sailors to go upon voyages of exploration, and gave certain privileges to merchants who had made at least three long voyages.

These are only a few of the reforms carried out by this great and wise king. And he did all this work in spite of the fact that he was throughout his life physically weak and often very ill. When he passed away his successors set to work to extend their rule over the lands he had granted to the Danes, and after much fighting the kings of Wessex became masters of the whole land from the English Channel to the Firth of Forth, and Danes and English formed one united people.

But about a hundred years after the death of Alfred, when England was under the weak rule of Ethelred, surnamed in scorn "the Unready"—that is, "weak in counsel"—fresh bands of vikings came to the shores of Britain; and they began to plunder in the old fashion. The foolish king tried to get rid of them first by bribes and afterwards by a great massacre, but in vain. After some years of fighting, Swegen, King of Denmark, drove Ethelred from his throne.

Upon the death of Swegen his son Cnut or Canute became King of England, as well as of Norway, Denmark, and part of Sweden. Cnut was a just and powerful ruler, who had a great desire to make England a united and peaceful kingdom. He forced the King

*King Cnut.*

of Scotland to take him as overlord. Under his rule the country enjoyed greater peace and prosperity than it had done since the time of Alfred, whom later ages have surnamed "the Great."

When Cnut died, his sons, who had no share of their father's good 'qualities, ruled for a time, and then the "Wise Men" or Parliament of the kingdom chose as their king Edward, the son of that "unready" monarch who had brought disaster upon his kingdom. So the old English line of kings was once more restored.

Meanwhile, in spite of the overlordship of Cnut, the Scottish kingdom was slowly but surely winning its way to unity and strength. While the sons of Cnut were ruling in England, the northern kingdom was under the weak rule of King Duncan, who was defeated and slain by one of his thanes or chiefs named Macbeth. Malcolm, Duncan's son and heir, escaped to the court of King Edward of England, where he remained for some fifteen years. He was there visited by a Scottish thane named Macduff, who persuaded him to march against Macbeth. A great army, therefore, made its way northward, and after offering a stout resistance, Macbeth was defeated and slain. This is the "Macbeth" of Shakespeare's great play, but the story as told by the poet has little real foundation in history.



Macbeth.

Chapter VI.

THE LAST OF THE SAXON KINGS.

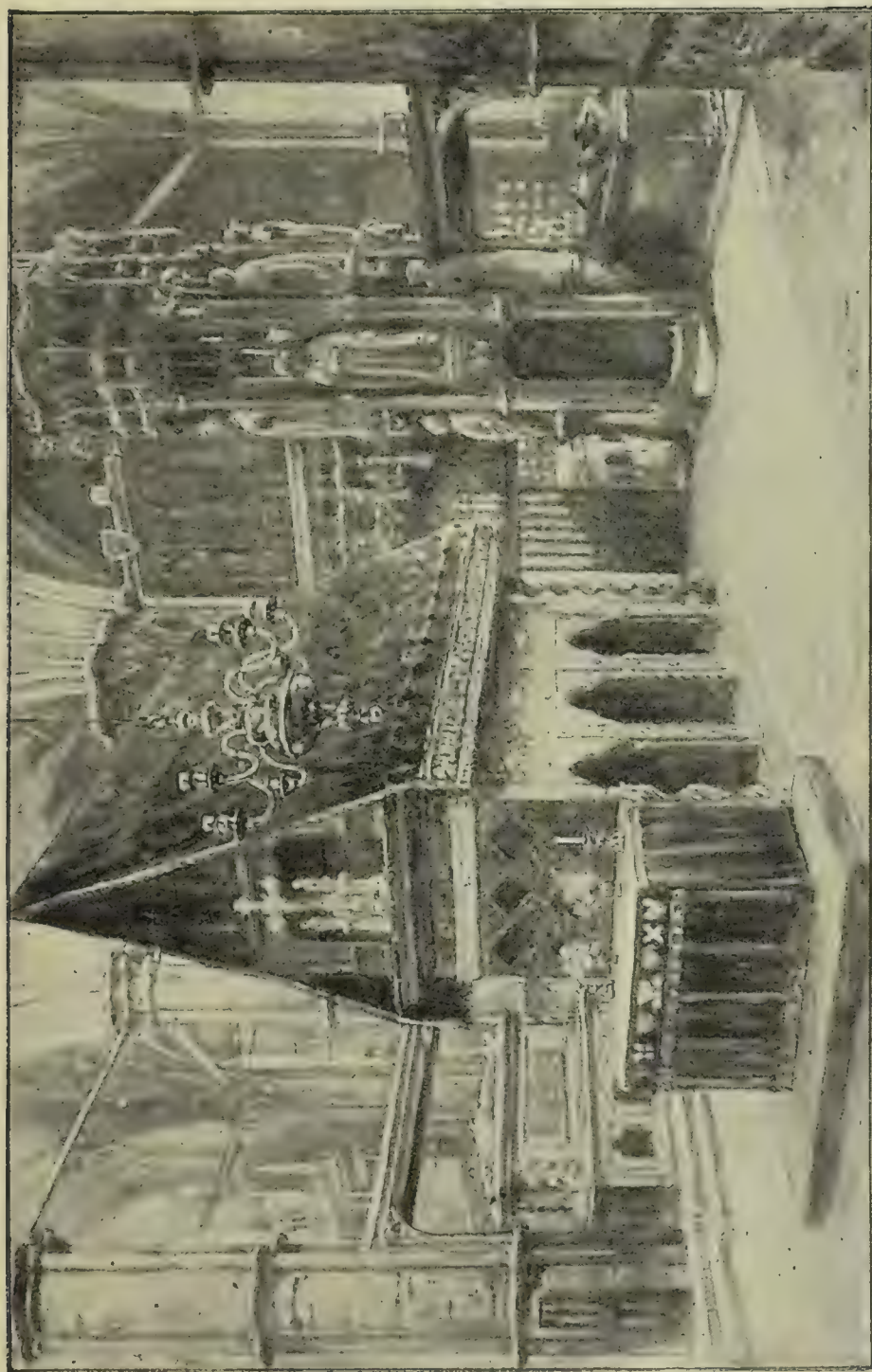
KING EDWARD of England had spent some twenty-eight years at the court of the Duke of Normandy, who ruled wide lands in the north of France. The Normans were originally Norsemen or Northmen who had swooped down upon the land of the Franks or French in much the same way as their kinsmen had descended upon our own country in the time of Alfred the Great. But having once secured a home for themselves in the Frankish land, they quickly settled down and became civilized. They learned to speak French, and in a wonderfully short time they became famous for their skill in arms, their zeal in building great churches, their knowledge of law, and their chivalrous manners.

When Edward of England—afterwards called “the Confessor,” and regarded as a saint—returned from Normandy, he found the English lords and ladies rough and uncultivated by comparison with his late friends and associates. He did not attempt to conceal his dislike of his new subjects, and he won for himself much unpopularity by inviting to his court many Norman knights and priests, whom he placed in positions of honour and profit.

The king did not greatly concern himself with the



The cross of Cong.



EDWARD THE CONFESSOR'S CHAPEL AT WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

(From a drawing by H. Tidmarsh.)

management of his kingdom, which was practically ruled by his father-in-law, Godwin, Earl of Wessex. This powerful noble was at one time driven into exile by the other English earls, who were jealous of his great power; but after a while they were glad to welcome back the man who had always stoutly taken their part against the king's Norman favourites. After the death of Godwin his son Harold became the king's chief counsellor; and when King Edward fell sick and died in the year 1066, a fateful year for England, the "Wise Men" chose Harold as King of England.

Now Duke William of Normandy had made up his mind to become King of England, and he declared that King Edward had promised him the succession to the throne. Moreover, he said that Earl Harold himself when in Normandy had taken a solemn oath to support his claim. These excuses and reasons are not really important. The strongest reason was that William had made up his mind to be King of England; and compared with Harold he was a man of a very strong mind indeed, as we shall presently see.

He collected a great army and a fleet of ships; he obtained the blessing of the Pope on his enterprise; and he then watched carefully for an opportunity to land on the south coast of England. His chance came when King Harold was called to the Humber to repel an invasion by the King of Norway, made in support of the cause of Earl Tostig, the brother



A Norse king.

of the king, who had a grievance against him. At the battle of Stamford Bridge, in Yorkshire, Harold defeated the invading force and slew both its leaders. When he was feasting with his thanes after the battle a messenger came hot-foot from the south with the news that Duke William of Normandy had effected a landing at Pevensey, near Hastings, and was preparing to march upon London, there to claim the crown of England.

King Harold was soon ready to march southward, and meanwhile sent out messengers summoning the English earls to his banner; but the nobles were jealous of him, and did not respond. The king was therefore forced to meet the invader with his own immediate supporters and a comparatively small number of men collected from the southern counties. The English king chose his position on a hill called Senlac, not far from Hastings. He placed his men in close order, commanding them to maintain their ground at any cost, and on no account to be tempted down into the plain below.

On the morning of October 14, 1066, the Normans advanced to the attack. Their archers poured a steady stream of arrows upon the close-set ranks of the English, and their horsemen charged again and again up the hill. But the line of defence remained unbroken. At last Duke William ordered his men to make a pretended retreat. They did so, and the English,



Normans at Pevensey.

thinking the day was won, swept down the slope after them. Then the Normans turned, and in the struggle that followed routed their foes with great slaughter.

King Harold and his bodyguard, however, held their ground and fought bravely round the royal standard until evening began to fall. Then Duke William ordered his bowmen to discharge their arrows high into the air, so that they might fall upon the heads of the brave ring of Englishmen. The order was obeyed with terrible effect. An arrow pierced King Harold's right eye, and he fell dead at the foot of the standard he had defended so well. His bodyguard fought valiantly to the last, no man yielding or forsaking his place. When the darkness closed Duke William of Normandy had taken the first decisive step in the conquest of England.

Having secured the country to the south, he next swept round to the north of London. The city being thus isolated, he forced the "Wise Men" to choose him as king, and was duly crowned in the Abbey Church of Westminster. But his work was really only begun. He was disposed to deal justly and even gently with his new subjects, but it was not to be expected that they would submit to his rule without a struggle. The north of England rose against him; but he marched into Yorkshire and laid it waste with fire and sword. Then in the depth of winter he crossed the Pennines, marched



The death of Harold.



THE BURIAL OF HAROLD AT WALTHAM ABBEY.
(From the picture by F. R. Pickersgill.)

on Chester, and quelled the rebellion in the west. In the east there was a rising under the famous Hereward the Wake, who held out for a long time in the marsh-girt Isle of Ely. But in the end the brave Saxon "rebel" was driven from his stronghold, and was eventually taken into the service of the Conqueror.



Queen Margaret.

King William next marched into Scotland, whose queen, Margaret, was sister of the native heir to the English crown. Her husband, King Malcolm, aided the Northumbrians in their resistance to the Conqueror, and it was upon Northumbria that William's vengeance fell most heavily. So great was the destruction which he wrought in the district between the Humber and the Tees that an old chronicler tells how "a stranger would groan to see it, and an old inhabitant of the province, *if one had escaped alive*, would not know it." Finally, however, the war was carried into Scotland, and Malcolm was obliged to acknowledge William as his "overlord."

About this time the south-eastern portion of Scotland, between the Firth of Forth and the Tweed, became the home of large numbers of English families who wished to escape from the rule of the Normans. These newcomers looked to the Scottish king in Edinburgh as their master, and all the more willingly because his wife was an English princess. Thus one result of the Norman conquest of England was the extension of the Scottish kingdom southward roughly

to its present limit, though the actual "Border" was destined to be in dispute for hundreds of years.

This helps to explain also why the people of Southern Scotland differ so much in character and general appearance from the Highlanders. They are for the most part of Anglo-Saxon stock, nearer akin to the people of the northern counties of England than to the people of the far north of Scotland.

Chapter VII.

THE WORK OF THE CONQUEROR.

AS soon as the conquest of England was completed the Normans began to erect strong castles to overawe the people. Sturdy square towers or "keeps," of which the Tower of London was one, arose in various parts of the land. Three were built on the border of Wales—at Hereford, Shrewsbury, and Chester respectively; and from these centres the Normans carried on operations against the Welsh, who had by no means been completely subdued. There was much fierce fighting in the Welsh "marches" or border lands; but after a time the Normans made themselves masters of Wales, except the mountain district of Snowdon.

William now set to work to make his conquest secure. His first task was to protect himself against



King William I.

his own nobles. They had won England for him, but they seemed inclined to hold it for themselves, and to show as little regard to him as his own ancestors in Normandy had shown to their overlords, the kings of France.

The Conqueror took steps to check this tendency. The barons who had fought for him were rewarded with grants of land. But William took care that these lands should be scattered over various parts of the country. Thus if the holder wished at any time to raise a force against his sovereign, he would not find it easy to collect his men for the purpose.

The barons, moreover, held these lands under an oath of loyalty to the king. When the estates were granted, the noble knelt before William and, placing his hands between those of the king, swore to be his "man," to be loyal to him and to fight for him whenever he might be called upon. This ceremony was called "doing homage" to the king.

The nobles in their turn made grants of portions of land to their retainers on condition of a similar oath of loyalty and service. But whenever this was done the king stepped in and exacted from these smaller land-owners a promise of service to himself, even if their immediate lords should forsake their duty to him. In this and in other ways the Conqueror endeavoured to check the power of the barons; and in time the English people began to see that William was their



Norman archer.

best friend against these turbulent nobles. So they took his part in some of the struggles which followed the Conquest, and which make the history of England at this time a painful record of rebellions, each followed by stern punishment.

Yet the reign of the Conqueror was not entirely spent in fighting. The king tried hard to win friends among his new subjects. He allowed them to retain many of their former customs and laws, though he swept away the old Saxon assembly of the Wise Men, and set up in its place a Great Council which depended entirely upon his will ; and he defended the people against the oppression of the great nobles, upon whom he had bestowed most of the estates of the Saxon lords.

But William had no real love for his new subjects, and his acts of seeming kindness were really the outcome of his policy of keeping down the power of his barons. When it pleased him he could be as cruel as the worst of his followers, as was shown by his destruction of the Hampshire hamlets, in order to create that great hunting-ground which came to be known as the New Forest. "That was a fatal day for England," writes an old English chronicler in reference to the battle on Senlac hill, "a melancholy havoc of our dear country through its change of masters. . . . The Normans are a race inured to war, and can hardly live without it ; fierce in rushing against the enemy ; and where



Norman ladies.



At the Coronation of William the Conqueror

(From the painting by John Cross.)

When the archbishop proposed William's name to the assembly a loud shout of assent was given. Hearing the sound, the Norman soldiers without, thinking that a riot was beginning, cut down some of the spectators and fired some houses before they discovered their mistake.

strength fails of success, ready to use stratagem or to corrupt by bribery."

As for the king himself, the old writer tells us, in reference to his fondness for hunting, how "he loved the tall deer as if he were their father," and says further that "the rich complained and the poor murmured, but he was so sturdy that he recked not aught of them; they must will all that the king willed if they would live, or would keep their lands, or would be maintained in their rights."

Let us try to get some idea of the general effect of the Norman Conquest. England now came into close connection with the Continent, for her new king was also Duke of Normandy, and many of the great landowners held estates in both countries. This was not a good thing for England as a nation, but we shall see before long how this Continental connection was finally severed. The Normans made themselves pre-eminent in all departments of life in England. The bishoprics and other chief places in the Church were held by Normans, as well as the great offices of State. Norman-French became the language of the nobility, the Church, and the courts of law. To speak English was considered a sign of inferiority, to disclaim all knowledge of it a proof of breeding.

Yet in the end the effect of these changes was not altogether disadvantageous. Many of the Norman churchmen were priests of great learning and



Norman churchmen.

*A Norman castle.*

saintly life. One of the best was Lanfranc, a learned, simple, fearless man, who was known throughout Europe for his knowledge, and was not afraid to brave the anger of the Conqueror, who chose him as Archbishop of Canterbury. The speaking of Norman-French added to the English language many words which made the mother-tongue richer and more expressive when, after a time, the speech of the English once more became the language of the nation. The knowledge of law for which the Normans were famous also proved of advantage to the race which seemed to be conquered, but was merely overshadowed. The Normans, moreover, refined the manners of the English. The former were distinguished for their courtesy, and though at first the English laughed at their fine ways, they learnt from them a less uncouth and boorish behaviour.

Such were some of the effects of the Norman invasion upon the English nation, which, as we have seen, was already a blend of several Continental races. Another stage had been reached in building up the British nation of to-day.

*A Norman porch.*



JOUSTING ON LONDON BRIDGE.

(From the painting by R. Beavis.)

The "keep" of the Tower of London can be seen in the background. (See p. 53.)

Chapter VIII.

THE SONS OF THE CONQUEROR.

IN his last years William the Conqueror was engaged in a quarrel with the King of France, who was his overlord with respect to the lands he held as Duke of Normandy. In the year 1087 he led an attack upon the city of Mantes, and while he was looking with joy at the work of destruction, his horse trod on a hot ember from the burning city and stumbled. William, who was very stout, was thrown heavily against the high fore part of his saddle, and was so severely hurt that he was carried away to Rouen to die.



William I. at Mantes.

He bequeathed the crown of England to his second son, William Rufus, or "the Red," in preference to his easy-going elder brother Robert, because he seemed better fitted to hold the powerful barons in check. But the English people who had rallied to his support were destined to be bitterly disappointed. The new king was a violent, self-willed man who cared little how the barons oppressed the people; indeed, he was himself a greater tyrant than any of these lords, and his reign was a miserable time for England. Yet he had a great opportunity if he had cared to take advantage of it; for the nation was in his time blindly seeking for a national leader of strength and wisdom.

In strict justice, however, it must be said that the reign of William Rufus was not altogether an inglorious time for his country. He went to war with Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, and took from him the city of Carlisle and the district of Cumberland. Thus the western border between England and Scotland was carried north to the Solway. In the following year the Scottish king invaded England, but was killed at Alnwick, along with his son Edward and the best of his knights. A younger son, Eadgar, who became king a few years later, was the first Scottish king to use the English tongue and to make the Lowlands his favourite abode. Thus we find the two kingdoms being drawn more closely together in spite of outward strife.

King William's barons also carried the sword into Wales, where they won much land, for which they did homage to the king. Many of them married Welsh ladies ; and here also we find that, in spite of fierce war and bitter hatred, the process of welding the people into one nation was going on even in the reign of the unworthy King William the Second.

No one mourned deeply when Rufus met his death while hunting in the New Forest ; indeed, it is said that the arrow which killed the king had been aimed at him rather than at one of the deer.

The barons, mindful of their own interests, tried to make Robert, who was now Duke of Normandy,



A robber lord.

King of England also. But Henry, a younger son of the Conqueror, who had the general support of the nation, was able to seize the throne. Henry solemnly promised to undo much of the evil that Rufus had done. After a long struggle between the two brothers Henry defeated and captured Robert, who was kept a prisoner in Cardiff Castle till the time of his death, twenty-eight years later. Thus Henry became Duke of Normandy as well as King of England, and he also wrested from the French king the provinces of Maine and Brittany.

Henry had a fierce struggle with the barons—a struggle which played a great part in the real founding of the nation. It was very necessary that these powerful lords should be kept in check; otherwise they would have made the common people a mere herd of serfs, with no more rights than the beasts of the field. It does not matter to us whether Henry did this work from a good motive or not. The fact remains that he acted as the champion of the nation against the Norman lords, and so helped to keep alive the English national spirit. He greatly pleased both the English and the Scottish people by marrying a daughter of the King of Scotland, the Princess Matilda, who was descended from the old English royal house of Alfred the Great. Thus it comes about that our present king can trace his descent, not only from the Conqueror, but also from the older English line.



FIRST TRIAL BY JURY.
(From the cartoon by C. W. Cope, R.A.)

The most important work to which King Henry set his hand was the better ordering of the methods by which justice was administered in the country. He diminished the powers of the barons in judging and punishing their vassals, and he began the plan of sending judges through the country to hold trials, which is followed to the present day. He was a stern ruler, but he governed so well and justly that he earned the title of the "Lion of Justice."

During his time Normans and English were drawn into closer union. The former began to learn English, and many of the latter gave their children Norman names. Moreover, the Normans living in England began to draw apart from their kindred across the sea, and to regard the land of their adoption as their home. This was all to the advantage of the nation, which we may now see had not become Norman, but had remained English in spite of what is called in history the Norman Conquest.

Henry the First had two children. His son Prince William was drowned while crossing from Normandy in a vessel named the *White Ship*; and Henry therefore got his barons to promise that after his death they would make his daughter Maud, or Matilda, Queen of England. But when the great king died, the barons, who did not wish to be ruled by a woman, chose his cousin Stephen of Blois as king, and for some years there was civil war in England over the suc-



Queen Matilda.

cession to the throne. At last it was agreed that Stephen should keep the crown, but that on his death Henry of Anjou, the son of Queen Matilda, should become king.

During this civil war the Scots had entered England to support Queen Matilda, and a great battle was fought near Northallerton in Yorkshire. This was known as the Battle of the Standard, because the English fought round a car on which were hung four consecrated banners from the minsters of York, Durham, Ripon, and Beverley. In spite of their gallantry, the Scots were driven back, and made a speedy retreat to Carlisle.

The quarrels about the succession to the throne gave the great barons an opportunity of regaining their power. In all parts of the land they built strong castles, which became resorts of many high-handed and lawless people. They fought incessantly among themselves ; they oppressed the poor and robbed the farmer and the merchant ; and they hunted down and plundered without mercy all those who were known to be possessed of wealth.

King Stephen was not able to hold the unruly barons in check, and it seemed as if the vigorous work of the "Lion of Justice" had been all in vain. But Stephen died after a reign of nineteen years, and was succeeded by Henry the Second, who figures as one of the greatest men of his country and his age.



The standards at Northallerton

Chapter IX.

A CONTINENTAL KING.

*King Henry.*

HENRY THE SECOND of England was ruler also of large territories in France, which he held in the right of his mother and of his wife Eleanor. So wide were these dominions that he regarded his kingdom of England as by no means the most important of his possessions. Yet he did a great deal towards building up the British nation as we know it to-day.

His first task as King of England was to bring the unruly barons to order. He caused nearly four hundred of their castles to be levelled with the ground, and none of the robber lords were strong enough to offer any real resistance to this masterful monarch. Then he offered to excuse the feudal barons from fighting under his banner if they would pay him certain sums of money. Most of them gladly agreed to this, and the result was that in time they lost the fighting habit, and so became less of a menace to the nation. Henry used the money which they paid him to hire foreign soldiers to fight his battles for him.

Having taken this step, the king began to set right the administration of justice. Once more he sent the judges on circuit through the country, and the law of the land again won the respect of the people. Henry also established a national army for home defence,

*Justices.*

improved the methods for levying and collecting taxes, and gave the towns certain rights and privileges, in return for which the townspeople gave him their active support in his disputes with the barons.

So much for Henry's home government. But he also did a great deal towards drawing together the various parts of Britain. Let us see, in the first place, what were his relations with Scotland.

The king of that country was Malcolm the Maiden, so called because he was fair and girlish in appearance. Henry, taking advantage of his youth, got him to restore Northumberland and Cumberland to the English Crown. But when Malcolm died, at the early age of twenty-four, he was succeeded by his brother William, a man of a very different character. He became known as "William the Lion," because he adopted a lion rampant as the royal arms of Scotland.

William invaded England, and encamped near the castle of Alnwick. Riding in the fields one morning in a thick mist along with a small company of his knights, he was surprised by a party of English horsemen and carried as a prisoner to Northampton, where he met King Henry. He was then sent to the castle of Falaise in Normandy, but after six months was set free on condition that he would hold Scotland as the vassal of the English king.

This bargain held good for fifteen years, and was then set aside, as we shall see in our next chapter.



The Scottish Lion.



Falaise Castle.

King Henry's dealings with Scotland show us his desire for uniting that kingdom with his own, but it was a kind of unity to which the northern kingdom would never consent. Scotland and England were indeed destined in future ages to form one country, but only on a basis satisfactory to both.

We also see Henry's desire for unity in his dealings with Wales and with Ireland. In his reign there were many fierce struggles between the Welsh and the Norman barons who had established themselves in castles in various parts of South Wales; but in the mountain lands of Snowdon the Welsh remained independent under their native prince, Owen Ap-Griffith.

Henry himself invaded the Snowdon district, but was forced to fall back, as he found it impossible to obtain supplies for his army in that wild country. But he was able to make his power felt in other parts of Wales. He sent some of his friendly barons into that country, where he gave them large estates, and he settled others on the Welsh borders or "marches," with the object of preventing the mountaineers from making raids on Western England.

Wales and England were also destined to form one country, but, as in the case of Scotland, it was to be on different terms from those which were now offered.

Let us next consider Henry's dealings with Ireland. We saw in a previous chapter how that country had once led the way in religion and learning. But



THE MURDER OF BECKET.
(From the painting by John Cross, in Canterbury Cathedral.)

*Irish clansmen.*

trouble fell upon Ireland during the days of the Norsemen. The country was filled with strife, and there was no one among the kings of the island strong enough to make himself master of all the country and give it the benefit of firm government.

In the time of Henry the Second the Pope of Rome was a man of English birth who greatly desired to see order restored in Ireland; so, exercising the power which he claimed as Head of the Church, he gave Ireland to Henry the Second of England.

At the time when the gift was made Henry was too busy to go to Ireland, but later he gave permission to a band of Norman knights under Richard de Clare, surnamed Strongbow, to go as his deputies. Strongbow, however, made himself so powerful that Henry thought it wise to cross to Ireland in person, where he was proclaimed as *Ard-Reagh*, or overlord. It was a settlement of a difficulty, but not a lasting one.

We have seen enough to justify us in calling Henry the Second the champion of unity. He wished to unite the whole of the British Isles under one king as they are united to-day. But the great work was not destined to be accomplished for many centuries after his time.

Henry the Second went still further in trying to carry out his ideas of unity. He saw that the Church had great power over the people, as well as great

wealth in money and lands, but that the Church was in some respects a foreign power in England, over which the king had very little control ; so he undertook the task of bringing the clergy into subjection to himself. In order to accomplish his purpose he appointed one of his courtiers, Thomas Becket, as Archbishop of Canterbury. As soon as he was placed in this position, however, Becket took the side of the Church, and stoutly resisted the king. As a result he was forced to spend six years in exile, but he returned only to continue his opposition still more stoutly.



Archbishop Becket.

At the time of his return Henry was in France, and when he heard of Becket's arrival he flew into a passion and cried, "Is there no one among those who eat at my table who will rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four of his knights took him at his word, crossed over to Canterbury, and slew the archbishop in his own cathedral.

Great was the horror and grief at the crime, not only on the part of the people, but of the king himself, and the archbishop soon came to be regarded as a saint—St. Thomas of Canterbury.

The quarrel between Henry and Becket is an important historical event. It represents Henry's attempt to make himself absolute master in his own kingdom. The king was to be supreme in the land, according to his own idea, and the clergy, no less than the people and the nobles, were to be his servants.

Further, as we have seen, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland were to be united under one monarch. It was a dream which the king did not realize, but it marks the dreamer as one of the greatest statesmen in the history of our country ; for his dream did at last come true.

Chapter X.

THE TIME OF THE GREAT CHARTER.

THE last days of Henry the Second were embittered by the conduct of his sons, Henry, Geoffrey, Richard, and John, among whom he meant to divide his great dominions at his death. The princes rebelled against their father, and his last words are said to have been, "Shame, shame, on a conquered king!"

His eldest surviving son, Richard, who was really a French prince, succeeded him as King of England ; but the life and exploits of this monarch have little to do with British history. He was a gallant leader in the Crusades, or Wars of the Cross, in which the knights and princes of Western Europe tried to wrest the Holy Land from the power of the Turks ; but his warlike exploits concern our national story only indirectly.

Wishing to obtain money for a crusade, King Richard relieved William of Scotland from his homage



King John assenting to Magna Carta.

(From the mural painting by Ernest Normand, in the Royal Exchange, London.)

to the Crown of England on payment of a sum of money. "I would sell London itself," said this foreign King of England, "if I could find a buyer wealthy enough."

So Scotland became once more independent. This may appear at first sight to be a set-back to the process of the drawing together of the two nations; but it was not so in reality, for it was only on terms of equality that the two countries could be truly united.

Meanwhile the real work of unification had been going on independent of war and conquest. Norman nobles had settled in the southern part of Scotland, and many became connected by marriage with the Scottish noble houses; as we shall see in our next chapter, the champion of Scotland against the kings of England was himself a noble of Anglo-Norman family—Robert Bruce.



A Crusader.

King Richard took part in the Third Crusade, and won a great name as a military leader. On his return across Europe he was captured by an enemy, and after languishing in a German prison for some time, he paid his second visit to England, but only to leave the country shortly afterwards to engage in a French war, in which he lost his life. He was succeeded as King of England by his brother John, who is said to have earned his surname of "Lackland" from the fact that his father left him no inheritance of his own.

We have seen how Henry the Second, the father

of King John, worked and schemed to make the power of the king supreme. This plan worked well on the whole when the king was a good ruler, capable of keeping the peace and dispensing true justice within his dominions ; but this great power in the hands of a monarch such as King John was a curse to the country. Consequently we find during the reign of this king a desperate struggle on the part of the nation to curtail the royal power.

King John was one of the worst of the long line of monarchs who have occupied the English throne. Personally he was selfish, mean, and cowardly ; and he ruled without any regard to the rights of the people, taxing his subjects heavily, and plundering the rich without mercy. Before long he was involved in a quarrel in which the clergy and barons became the champions of the nation against the king. He also quarrelled with the Pope over the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope selected Stephen Langton, a good and wise Englishman, whom John refused to accept. The Pope therefore cut off the English people from the Christian Church, and urged Philip of France to invade England and dethrone the disobedient king.

Upon this John submitted in the most abject manner. He agreed to Langton's appointment, and even went so far as to give up his crown to the papal representative, and receive it again as the gift of the



King John.

Pope. In acting in this manner John was only concerned to score against his enemy, Philip of France, who was now ordered by the Pope to desist from his plans of invasion.



Canterbury Cathedral.

The Archbishop of Canterbury took the side of the barons, and with their leaders drew up a document known as *Magna Carta*, or the "Great Charter," embodying certain promises which they were determined should be made by the king. "Why do they not ask for my crown as well?" said the

angry monarch when the Charter was read over to him. John was forced to give way, however, and on June 15, 1215—about seven centuries ago—he met the archbishop and the barons on the island of Runnymede in the Thames, and there gave his solemn assent to the Great Charter, which may be truly said to form the foundation of the liberties of England.

There were many promises in the Great Charter, but we shall mention only two of the most important. King John had been accustomed to levy certain taxes at his pleasure; he undertook to discontinue this practice, and to allow the Great Council of the nation to levy such taxes as were necessary.

Further, he promised that no free man was to suffer punishment until he had been lawfully tried and found guilty. This prevented the king from punishing arbitrarily those freemen who offended him in any



HUBERT DE BURGH AND THE BLACKSMITH.

(From the painting by Allan Stewart.)

Hubert de Burgh was the man who is said to have been ordered by King John to put out the eyes of Prince Arthur, but who refused to do so. When King John died Hubert ruled England wisely and well for the young King Henry. But his enemies plotted against him, and he was taken prisoner. When a certain village blacksmith was ordered to put fetters upon him, he refused to inflict such an indignity upon "the man who freed England."

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way, as he had been in the habit of doing. To these restrictions the king assented most unwillingly, but he was for the time powerless in the hands of the barons.

We see in this important event in our history another step towards unity and strength for the nation. While the king was supreme there was constant danger of oppression, abuse, and consequent disunion. The British idea of government, which has been realized in our own time, is that the nation shall govern itself; and in the Great Charter we see the first definite advance towards the establishment of this great principle.

King John, however, never meant to keep his promises, and before long he hired foreign soldiers to help him against the barons, who were at last driven to offer the English crown to Prince Louis, the son of the French king. Louis landed in England with an army, but not long afterwards King John fell ill of a fever and died. He was succeeded by his son as Henry the Third, and Prince Louis went back to France.

We must now ask whether any advance was made in the reign of King John towards the closer union of the several parts of the British Isles. Let us note a few facts which bear directly upon this matter.

King John led an army into France, where he fought many battles, and ended by losing practically

the whole of his French possessions. This was really a good thing for the English people, whose strength lay in their position as an island nation. Many of the barons, too, who held estates in both England and France had now to choose which they would retain, and those who stayed in England became patriotic Englishmen instead of having their interests divided between two separate countries. So King John's loss was really the gain of England.

The King of Scotland had joined the barons against King John, and the latter monarch marched into the northern kingdom, laying the country waste with fire and sword, but he left Scotland without having fought a pitched battle. It is worth noting that Scots and English were here united against a tyrant monarch.

Llywelyn, Prince of North Wales, had also taken the side of the English barons in their struggle with King John, so that we have at this early date a union of a kind between the peoples of England, Scotland, and Wales against an unworthy king. Llywelyn had married Joan, the daughter of King John; but this did not prevent the English king from marching into North Wales, where he was, on the whole, as ineffective as he had been in Scotland.



A ship of the period.

Chapter XI.

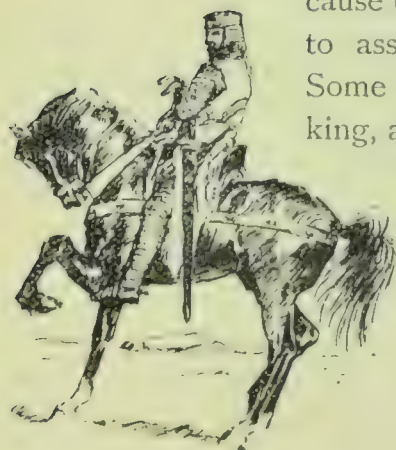
THE FIRST EDWARD.

HENRY THE THIRD, the son of King John, reigned as King of England for the long period of fifty-six years. He was as weak and helpless as his father had been violent and vindictive. His reign, however, is remarkable for an important event in the history of England.

Like his father before him, Henry the Third quarrelled with the barons. They were especially angry at the favour shown by the king to numbers of Frenchmen, relatives of his wife and his mother, who were detested for their insolence at the court. Strangely enough, the English barons rallied under the leadership of a French nobleman, Simon de Montfort, who thought so little of the English tongue that he and his friends first introduced French into English State documents.

But Simon had married a sister of Henry the Third, and he set himself the hard task of upholding the cause of the English barons, who had now once more to assert the rights granted in the great Charter. Some of the barons, however, took the side of the king, and before long there was civil war in the land.

A battle was fought at Lewes in Sussex, where the forces led by De Montfort defeated



Simon de Montfort.



THE PREACHING OF THE FIRST CRUSADE—"GOD WILLS IT!"
(From the picture by James Archer, R.S.A. By permission of the Autotype Company.)

the royal army and captured King Henry as well as his brave son, Prince Edward. After this Simon governed England in the king's name, and in order to help him in the work he called together a council of his supporters from various parts of the country.

The Saxon kings had taken and acted upon the advice of the "Wise Men." The Norman kings were helped in the work of government by the Great Council. There was therefore nothing new in the idea of a council of advisers. The novelty introduced by Simon de Montfort was the summoning of members from cities and towns, who were neither barons nor great churchmen. He took care, however, to call only those who were willing to support him. We can see in this event a definite step towards the founding of the English Parliament, which actually came about in the next reign.

After some months of captivity Prince Edward contrived to make his escape, and was soon at the head of an army, with which he fell upon the supporters of Earl Simon at Evesham in Worcestershire. De Montfort was defeated and killed on the field. After Prince Edward had helped in the work of restoring peace to his country, he left England for the crusades. During his absence his father died, and he returned to begin the work which has made him famous as one of the strongest of our mediæval kings.

Let us follow in turn his dealings with England, Wales, and Scotland.

The new king had, on the whole, an enlightened idea of his duty as an English ruler, and he carried out certain measures which helped to give peace and order to the country. He called together the first true English Parliament, consisting not only of bishops and barons, but also of members from each county and from the most important of the towns. This was in 1295, an important date in the history of the British nation.

Edward had his quarrels with his people and his Parliament, and he did several things quite contrary to the spirit and letter of the Great Charter. Then the barons angrily protested, refused to help him in his wars, and forced him to observe the terms of the Charter of the nation's liberties, and even to add fresh clauses, relating chiefly to the levying of taxes which the king had imposed at his own will.

Prince Llywelyn of North Wales, who was son-in-law of King John, had died and left his country in a state of great confusion. Then there came to the front another Llywelyn, who determined to make himself ruler of the whole of Wales, and allied himself with Simon de Montfort, hoping to reap advantage from the unhappy divisions in England. But when Edward ascended the throne he ordered Llywelyn to do homage to him, and upon receiving a curt refusal he marched an army into Wales. There was much fighting but no united resistance on the part of the



A Welsh soldier.

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Welsh leaders, and King Edward was able to reduce them to submission.

His aim was that there should be only one king south of the Scottish border, and in order to please the Welsh he gave to his baby son, who was born in Carnarvon Castle, the title of Prince of Wales. But in spite of the king's strong hand and his desire to conciliate the Welsh princes, Wales was not yet united to England.

Events soon showed that Edward's designs were not really limited by the Scottish border. While the king was engaged in the settlement of Wales, Scotland had lost one of the best monarchs who have ever ruled in the northern kingdom. This was Alexander the Third, who was killed by a fall over a cliff near Kinghorn. His children had all died before him, and the heiress to the Scottish crown was his little granddaughter, Margaret, a Norwegian princess.

It was the design of the English king to marry this child to his son Edward, Prince of Wales, then a mere boy, and so in time to bring about by peaceful means the union of the two kingdoms. The Scottish barons gave their consent, and a ship was sent to bring the "Maid of Norway" over the North Sea to the land of her mother's people. The child was brought as far as Orkney, but there she sickened and died at the early age of eight years. The throne of Scotland was now without an heir, and to Edward



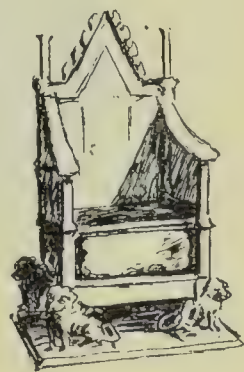
The Maid of Norway's ship.

of England it seemed that his great opportunity had come.

Several claimants to the Scottish crown now came forward, and Edward was asked to decide between them. The king agreed, but first he demanded that the claimants should acknowledge him as overlord, and to this demand the rivals, eager for royal honours, weakly agreed. Only two of the claimants, John Balliol and Robert Bruce, had any close relationship to the royal line, and Edward decided that the former had the better claim, possibly rejoicing also that Balliol was a man unlikely to oppose his own designs.

But as time went on the new King of Scotland, weak as he was, rebelled against the overlordship of the English king. Thereupon Edward invaded Scotland, and forced Balliol not only to submit, but also to resign his crown. He was kept a prisoner for some time, and then allowed to escape to France.

The English king now garrisoned the Scottish castles with English troops. He appointed the Earl of Surrey Guardian of Scotland, and filled the high offices of state with Englishmen. He endeavoured to carry off every token and memorial of the independence of Scotland. He seized the crown and sceptre and the "Stone of Destiny," on which the Scottish kings had been crowned from the remotest times. Having settled everything to his mind, he returned home in triumph as the conqueror of Scotland.



*The coronation chair
(containing the Stone of
Destiny).*

Chapter XII

WALLACE AND BRUCE.

KING EDWARD wished to rule Scotland as justly and as well as he ruled England. The nobles, many of whom, as we have seen, had English connections, took the oath of fealty to him. But the people as a whole had no desire to be ruled by a foreign monarch, however well he might govern; and it was not long before they found a leader against the English.

This was William Wallace of Ellerslie, in the shire of Renfrew, who, having been shamefully treated by the governor of Lanark, gathered a party about him and began to make attacks upon the English. An army was sent to the north under the Earl of Surrey to deal with this "rebellion;" but Wallace met the English force and completely routed it in the battle of Stirling Bridge. The English garrisons were driven out, and Wallace ruled with the title of "Guardian of the Kingdom of Scotland."

Upon receipt of this news King Edward, who was at the time in Flanders, instantly sailed for England, gathered a splendid army, and marched into Scotland; but he found that the country had been laid waste before him, and his men suffered great hardships. Then he met Wallace at Falkirk, and defeated him after a gallant struggle. The Scottish leader escaped,



William Wallace.



THE TRIAL OF WALLACE BEFORE KING EDWARD OF ENGLAND.
(From the painting by Daniel MacLise, R.A., in the Guildhall Art Gallery. By permission
of the Corporation of London.)

*The Tower of London.*

and, deserted by many of the nobility, he went into hiding. A few years later he was betrayed into the hands of the English, taken to London, and, after imprisonment in the Tower, put to death as a traitor.

The national party in Scotland soon found a new leader in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the Bruce who had been one of the rival claimants for the Scottish crown. He had been for some time in residence at the English court, but when he heard how strong was the national movement in the northern kingdom he determined to win the Scottish crown for himself.

He therefore secretly made his way to the north, and had himself crowned as King of Scotland at Scone. Edward, who was now old and infirm, made a solemn vow to bring the northern kingdom completely into subjection. He sent forward a large army to Scotland under the command of the Earl of Pembroke, and made ready to follow in person with such speed as his age and infirmities would allow.

Only three months after his coronation King Robert was a fugitive in the Highlands, having been defeated by Pembroke near Perth. For many a weary month he led a wild and wandering life among the hills. Most of his followers dropped away ; but a small party of true and faithful friends, among whom were his brother Edward and Lord James Douglas, stood by him in his extremity. The queen, accompanied by the

*Robert Bruce.*

wives and sisters of his few remaining followers, joined him. With them came his young brother Nigel. They harboured like outlaws in the woods, moving about from place to place, and living upon the produce of their hunting until the approach of winter drove the ladies to seek shelter in a friendly castle, while the king made his way to the island of Rathlin.

Meanwhile King Edward had passed away, and had been buried at Westminster, in a tomb on which was carved the inscription, "Edward the First, the Hammer of the Scots." His son, Edward the Second, was as indolent and weak as his father had been energetic and determined; and this gave Robert Bruce an opportunity which he was not slow to seize. The fugitive king had been reduced almost to the lowest depths of despair. His queen, with their young daughter, as well as his two sisters, had been seized and imprisoned in England. His brother Nigel, his brother-in-law Sir Christopher Seton, and many of his true and noble friends, had been captured and hanged. His private estates were forfeited. For his murder of his rival, Comyn, in the church of Dumfries, the Pope's legate had pronounced sentence of excommunication on him.

But the turning-point was at hand. When spring returned, the Scottish king made his way to Ayrshire, where his own estates lay, and soon had a considerable number of followers at his back. His fortunes brightened gradually, and before long he began to



Bruce's cave.

gather strength and make good progress in the work of driving out the English. One stronghold after another fell into his hands, till at last, in 1313, only the castle of Stirling remained unsubdued, and so hard was the siege pressed that the governor agreed to surrender unless relieved by the following midsummer.

The news of this "indignity" roused even Edward the Second to action. Summoning a splendid army, he marched into Scotland, and met Bruce on the field of Bannockburn, near Stirling. The fight that followed was stern but decisive, and the victory of the Scots established for all time the independence of the northern kingdom. Edward fled to Dunbar and took ship for England.

Twice in the autumn following Bannockburn a Scottish army invaded England, laying waste the northern counties and returning laden with spoil. Next year the Scots again harried the north of England. King Robert offered to make peace, but the stupid obstinacy of Edward the Second more than once marred the negotiations. It was not till 1328, the second year of the reign of his son, Edward the Third, that a treaty of peace was signed, and the independence of Scotland acknowledged by the new King of England, whose sister Joanna was united in wedlock to David, the heir of Robert



Scottish raiders.

Bruce. Since the invasion of Scotland by Edward the First in John Balliol's time there had been two-and-thirty years of war between the two kingdoms.

Chapter XIII.

THE THIRD EDWARD.

WE have seen how the forced union between Scotland and England was dissolved during the reign of the weak King Edward the Second. Let us now turn for a moment to consider affairs in Ireland.

After the fight at Bannockburn, Edward Bruce, brother of King Robert, went to Ireland at the head of a large army. There he led a rising against the English, in which he was helped by his brother, and he was eventually strong enough to get himself crowned as "King of Ireland." But after a time his new "subjects," Irish and English together, turned against him, and in a fierce fight at Dundalk the Scots were completely routed and Edward Bruce was killed. Edward the Second had done little to protect the island from the invaders, and as a consequence the English power declined greatly ; indeed, it was only in the neighbourhood of Dublin that the English "Lord of Ireland" was obeyed. Once more, then, England, Scotland, and Ireland were very definitely separated.



A ship of the period.



The Black Prince being made a Knight of the Garter.
(From the picture by C. W. Cope, R.A., in Westminster Palace.)

After many years of incompetent government, Edward the Second was forced by Parliament to give up the throne in favour of his son, Edward the Third, who was destined to prove himself one of the really strong rulers of the land. Not long afterwards the deposed monarch was secretly murdered at Berkeley Castle in Gloucestershire.

The first part of the new king's reign was occupied in a war with Scotland. David the Second, the son of Bruce, was a mere child, and Edward Balliol, the son of John Balliol, with the support of England, attempted to win the Scottish crown. The nation, however, would have none of him. Edward of England fought and defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, and then placed Balliol upon the throne; but before long he was again driven from the kingdom. By this time the King of England had other work in hand.

The reign of Edward the Third is the time of the great English victories of Crécy and Poitiers, the time of the gallant Black Prince and Sir Walter Manny, a period of brave deeds and glorious campaigns. Let us try to discover what was really going on in this stirring period of our history.

Edward the Third laid claim to the crown of France. His aim was to make himself the most powerful monarch of Western Europe. In support of his claim he began the great struggle with the French, which lasted, with intervals, for almost a century, and



The Black Prince.

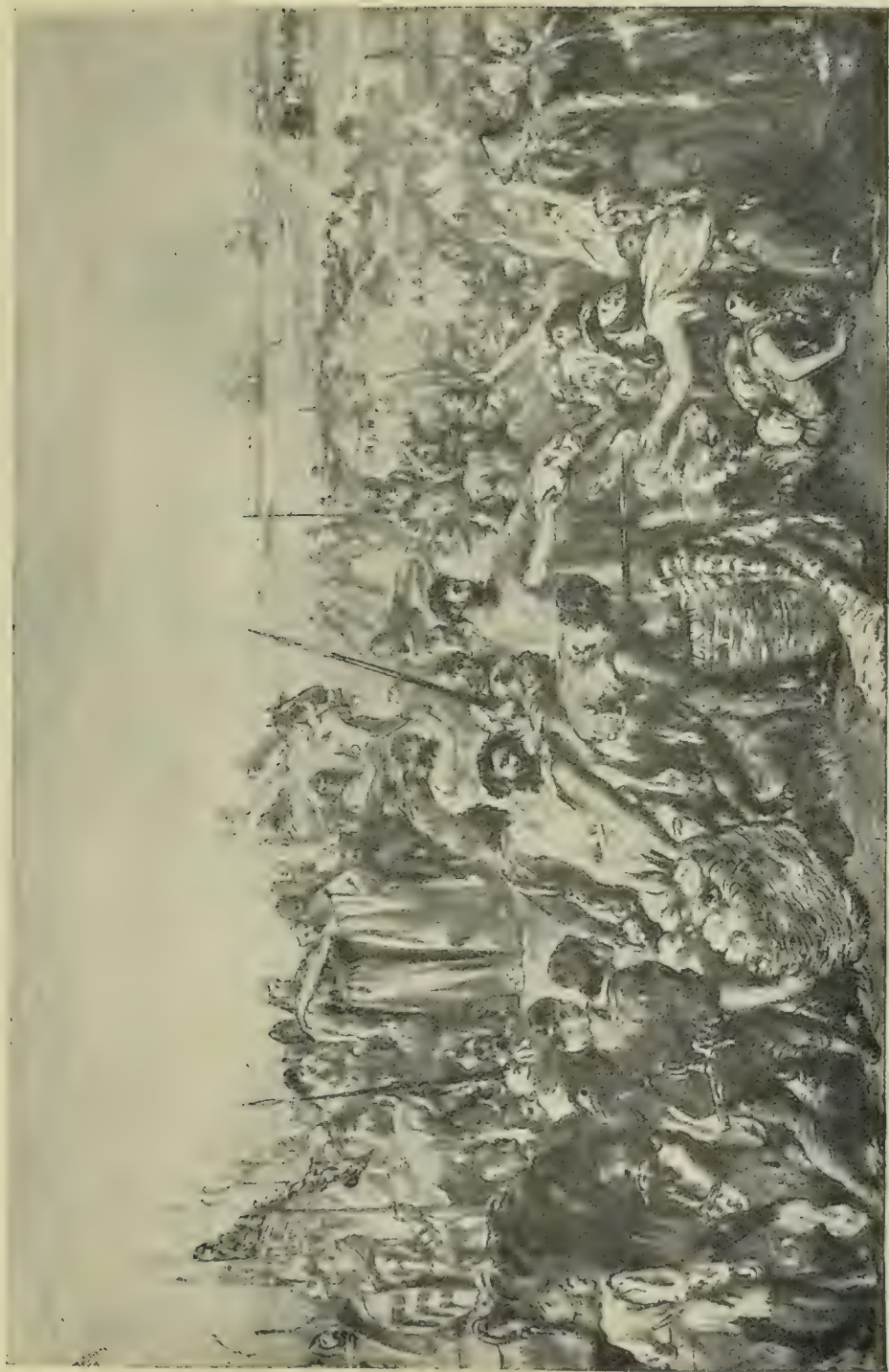
is therefore known in our history as the Hundred Years' War.

This war ended, as we shall see, in the loss of all the French territories which were claimed by the English kings, and in the political separation of England from the mainland of Europe. The British Isles were thus set at liberty to work out their own destiny—first to win unity for themselves, and then to found a world empire, unhampered by the effort to become a great European power. But there was to be much strife and bloodshed before the nation discovered its true work in the world.

Still it is natural for us to read with pride the story of the many brave deeds done by the yeomen and knights of England in the long war with France. At the beginning of the struggle we fought and won our first sea battle—an event of great importance and interest to all British boys and girls; for this victory gave us, even at that early date, the command of the sea which is necessary to our existence as a nation. The fight took place off Sluys, in Flanders, and King Edward himself had a share in it. The French had captured the *Christopher*, an English ship, and placed it in the forefront of the battle. "The battle endured from the morning," writes an old chronicler, "and lasted until it was noon, and the English suffered great pain, for their foes were four against one. But the French were beaten, slain, and drowned; not one escaped."



A ship of the period.



EDWARD III. AT THE SIEGE OF CALAIS.
(From the painting by Sir John Gilbert, R.A. By permission of the Corporation of London.)

*Calais burghers.*

Not long afterwards King Edward crossed over to France with his sixteen-year-old son, the Black Prince, and fought the battle of Crécy, in which the boy so bravely "won his spurs." Then followed the famous siege of Calais, where the brave burghers of that town showed a heroism which won the admiration even of their foes.

The victory of the Black Prince at Poitiers was even more important than that achieved at Crécy; and men have loved to dwell upon the courtesy of the victor to the vanquished King John of France, who was brought to London as a prisoner of war, but who was treated with all the reverence which his rank demanded, according to the chivalrous standard of that day.

But knightly courtesy did not outweigh such deep poverty and misery as were borne by the French people at this time. Army after army was sent to France by King Edward, and in time the country became almost a wilderness. Shiploads of plunder were carried back across the Channel, till there was no household of substance in England that "had not gotten garments, furs, feather-beds, and utensils of sorts from the homes of the French."

After some years of warfare and the misery it entails, Edward made peace with the French king on condition that the province of Aquitaine in the south-west of France was to acknowledge his

*English bowmen.*

sovereignty. But when King John of France passed away, his successor renewed the struggle with England, and gradually won back most of the land held by the English king. So ended for the time the English claim to the French crown.

But the fighting in France, evil as many of its effects had been, exercised a strengthening influence on the people of England. It knit them together, roused their patriotism, and made them feel that they were of some account among the nations of Western Europe. Besides, the English king's necessity was the nation's opportunity. In order to obtain from his Parliament money for his foreign wars, Edward the Third was obliged to make many promises which gave more and more liberty to his people. So the nation advanced in spite of the constant fighting, and in this reign made several important steps towards that self-government which is the only form of constitution suitable for a free people.

The reign of the third Edward is marked by another important change which served to strengthen the national spirit. When he came to the throne the language used in the colleges, the Parliament, the law courts, and the royal court was not English but French; but before his reign was ended English became the language of the college and the law court, and finally of Parliament also. This is, moreover, the time of our first great English poet, Geoffrey Chaucer,

*Chaucer.*

3 5 7 9 11 14 16 19



1 2 4 6 8 10 12 13 15 17 18 20 21 22 23

THE PILGRIMAGE TO CANTERBURY.

(From the painting by Thomas Stothard, R.A., in the National Gallery.)

The characters from Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales."

- | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. The Miller. | 9. The Ploughman. | 13. The Prioress. | 17. The Wife of Bath. | 21. The Friar. |
| 2. The Host. | 10. The Yeoman. | 14. The Clerk of Oxford. | 18. The Pardoner. | 22. The Carpenter. |
| 3. The Doctor. | 11. The Parson. | 15. The Shipman. | 19. The Sumpner. | 23. The Cook. |
| 4. The Sergeant-at-Law. | 12. The Nun. | 16. Chaucer. | 20. The Monk. | |

who wrote "The Canterbury Tales," and won for himself the title of "the first finder of our fair language."

Chapter XIV.

A TIME OF CHANGE AND PROGRESS.

THE Black Prince, the idol of the English nation, had died before his father, and when Edward the Third passed away his grandson became king as Richard the Second. The new monarch was a child of ten when he ascended the throne, and until he came of age the government was in the hands of his uncle.

When the young king was a boy of fourteen there was a rebellion of the peasantry. The war taxes pressed heavily upon them, landlords and masters were harsh and cruel, and these labouring people were greatly dissatisfied with the conditions under which they lived. Parties of the insurgents marched on London, where they did much wanton damage, and put to death certain lawyers who were unfavourable to their demands. Richard showed great courage at this time. He met one party of the insurgents in person, had a charter drawn up conceding all they asked for, and pardoned them for their "treason." The men then returned to their homes, and the king forgot his promises. Most of the leaders of the revolt were



Domestic servants of the time.

hunted down and put to death, and the rising seemed to have failed in its object.

But something had been attained. For the future the masters had the fear of such a rising before their eyes, and were afraid to treat their workers as cruelly as they had formerly done; and the state of serfdom or slavery in which many Englishmen had lived gradually became a thing of the past.

Richard the Second did not govern the country well. He raised forced loans from men of wealth, and backed up his demands by keeping a standing army of archers ready to do his bidding; and in many other ways he tried to set aside the rights which had been won or purchased by Parliament in previous reigns.

During this reign there was great disorder in Ireland, and the king twice crossed the Irish Sea to bring help to the English in that country. One of the Irish chiefs, who was known as Art MacMurrough, led a force of wild but valiant men from the north and west of the island. After some fighting this Irish chieftain paid a visit to Richard the Second at Waterford, and was knighted according to the fashion of the time. But when the English king had returned to his own land "Sir Art" resumed his former mode of living. Richard came again to Ireland, but was unable to restore order, and finally he had to return to England in order to look after his own interests.



A sergeant-at-arms (fourteenth century).

By this time the English Parliament had grown weary of their king's misgovernment, and exercising their lawful right had deposed King Richard, and offered the crown to his cousin, the Duke of Lancaster, who now became king as Henry the Fourth. The new monarch owed his crown to the English Parliament—a fact which placed that body in a stronger position than it had ever occupied before. Thus it came about that the misgovernment of Richard the Second was the indirect cause of a decided advance towards the government of the people by themselves.

Shortly after his deposition Richard the Second was sent to Pontefract Castle in Yorkshire. There, it is believed, he died a violent death, but the true story of his end has never been told.

We must not forget that, during the long period of fighting between England and France, Scotland was the consistent ally of the latter; and the English king had not only to face enemies on the other side of the Channel, but had to reckon upon constant trouble on the Scottish border.

About ten years before the deposition of Richard there was a battle at Otterburn in Northumberland, which was the most famous of all the Border fights between English and Scots at this troubled period of our history. It was fought between the Earl of Douglas and the son of the Earl of Northumberland, Sir Henry Percy, who was known as Hotspur.



DEATH OF WAT TYLER.
(From the picture by J. Northcote, R.A.)

Douglas was slain ; but the Scots were victorious, and Percy was made a prisoner.

After some time Hotspur was released, and with a party of Scots joined the Welsh under Owen Glendower, who had risen against the new King of England. They were met by the king's forces at Shrewsbury, where Hotspur was killed. But the Welsh chieftain was not subdued. To the day of his death Glendower maintained himself as a free prince in North Wales, whence he issued forth at times to ravage the English border. In spite of the work of Edward the First, and of all that had passed since then, England and Wales did not yet form one united country.

The connection of Henry the Fourth with Scotland is of interest, and had results of much importance. When this king had been only a few years on the throne, the master of an English ship captured the young Prince James of Scotland, who was on his way to France to be educated. The prince was at once placed in the Tower of London, and afterwards removed to Windsor, where he was kept a prisoner for about seventeen years. His education was well cared for, however, and he learned lessons of government which he was to put into practice by-and-by.

After the death of Henry the Fourth



Scottish spearmen.

the Scottish prince was released, married an English lady, Joan Beaufort, whom he had first seen from the window of his prison walking in the gardens at Windsor, and then set out for Scotland. At that time the country was in a state of great distress, owing to the weakness and misrule of the regent, the Duke of Albany. "I shall bring a change," vowed the new king, "such as men little dream of. There is not the wildest spot where the key shall not keep the castle and the bracken bush the cow."



James I. of Scotland.

So he set to work to give his country the benefit of just and strong government, and for thirteen years Scotland prospered greatly under his rule. Then a conspiracy was formed against him, and he was murdered by a party of traitors in a monastery at Perth, where he had gone with his queen to keep Christmas. James the First was one of the best kings of the northern kingdom. He was a great-grandson of a daughter of Bruce, who had married Walter, the High Steward of Scotland, and was the third king of what came to be known as the Stuart line.

This royal house of Stuart is of great importance in our story, for, as we shall see in due time, it was a Stuart king who was the first to reign as King of England and King of Scotland also, and thus to unite the two kingdoms on equal terms.

Chapter XV.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

IN the battle fought at Shrewsbury, of which we have already read, one of the leaders of the royal forces was the young son of King Henry the Fourth, who afterwards became King Henry the Fifth of England. Many stories have been told of the wild youthful days of this prince ; and Shakespeare, in his dramatic account of the battle, tells how the fiery young leader meets Hotspur in single combat ; how the latter finally falls with a mortal wound ; and how Prince Henry in noble words mourns the death of his brave foe.

The reign of Henry the Fifth is one of the heroic periods of our history. But in our admiration for the heroes of Agincourt we must not forget to note what effect the French wars of the time had upon our progress to unity as a nation.

The king brought forward once more that claim to the crown of France which, as we have seen, Edward the Third had attempted to enforce. He invaded the country, captured Harfleur, and after losing many men by pestilence, prepared to fight against great odds the famous battle of Agincourt. How he fought and won this fight is a well-known story. When the struggle was ended more than ten thousand of his foes lay dead upon the field, and

*Prince Harry.*



JOAN AND HER MEN TAKING A TOWN FROM THE ENGLISH.
(From the painting by J. E. Lenepveu.)

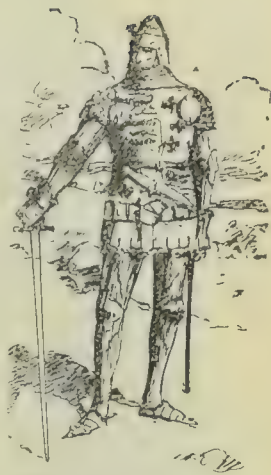
amongst them were most of the great nobles of the French Court.

After further fighting the king made peace with France. The English monarch was to marry the daughter of the French king, and seeing that the latter was weak-minded, Henry was to rule the land in his name. It was further arranged that on the death of the French king, Henry of England should become also King of France. As it happened, the English king died before his father-in-law, but our next monarch, Henry the Sixth, did actually become King of England and of France.

So it seemed as if at last the great dream of Edward the Third had been realized. But the forced union of the two countries was not destined to last for any length of time, and the next great event in our history is the severing of the unnatural bond. The English and the French were separate and distinct nations; only in the mind of an ambitious, self-seeking monarch could they ever be united.

The new King of England was a mere child when he came to the throne, and during his youth the government of both France and England was in the hands of his father's brothers. In France the people of the north accepted Henry as their king, but the rest of the country followed the son of the mad monarch who had been crowned at Poitiers as Charles the Seventh.

The English laid siege to Orleans, which was in the



Henry V.



Joan of Arc's house.

*Joan of Arc.*

hands of the national party of France, and they were on the point of taking the city when it was saved by Joan of Arc. This peasant maiden, one of the most famous women in the history of the world, believed that she was commissioned by God to drive out the English, and her courage and enthusiasm put new spirit into the supporters of Charles, who were beginning to lose heart.

Advancing upon Orleans at the head of a French force, Joan raised the siege of the city, and then conducted Charles to Rheims, where he was crowned as King of France. Then she wished to return to her home, but the French monarch would not allow her to do so; and after further fighting she was taken prisoner by some members of a faction hostile to Charles, and was sold by them to the English. She was tried and condemned as a witch, and in the marketplace of Rouen bravely met the death by fire ordained for her. The French king, to his lasting disgrace, made no effort to save her; yet her example and her memory fired the French to fresh efforts, and about twenty years after her death only one town in France acknowledged the sovereignty of the English king. This was Calais, our last link with the mainland of France.

Thus ended the unnatural connection between the French and English crowns, but for centuries after this time the kings of England styled themselves



Caxton's Printing Office in the Almonry at Westminster.

(From the painting by Daniel Maclise, R.A. By permission of Lord Lytton.)

In the centre, beside Caxton, stand Edward IV. and his Queen. Caxton, the first printer in England, set up his press during the troubled time of the Wars of the Roses, and thus achieved a victory of peace "no less renowned than war."

also kings of France. The Hundred Years' War was now at an end. This great struggle had, as we have seen, a strengthening effect upon the English people, who learned many lessons in the art of war which were afterwards to stand them in good stead.

As soon as the Hundred Years' War was ended a warlike struggle began in England itself. This is known as the Wars of the Roses, and we must try to understand its meaning and its importance in the story of the progress of the nation towards settled and orderly government.

This war was not really a national struggle, but chiefly concerned the nobles. A certain section of them now made another effort to throw off the authority of the king, which had pressed heavily upon them during the time of strong rulers, such as Henry the Fourth and Henry the Fifth. The struggle ended in the great houses of the nobility on either side almost exterminating each other, and in the strengthening of the royal power. Afterwards, the struggle for mastery was to be between the king and the people; at present we must follow the last stage of the contest between the king and the nobles.

The Wars of the Roses began in the reign of Henry the Sixth, who was of feeble mind, and a mere puppet in the hands of the great lords. Many of them kept large numbers of "retainers"—that is, armed men who wore their liveries and were entirely under their con-



*Joan of Arc's Tower at
Rouen.*

trol. Many soldiers, too, who had spent the greater part of their lives in the wars in France, were now without employment, and were ready to serve any leader who would pay them, no matter what his cause might be.

It was not long before they found employment. A party of nobles banded themselves together to advance the claim of Richard, Duke of York, to the crown. The grandfather of the king, Henry of Lancaster, had, they said, been a usurper, and the Duke of York was the rightful heir to the throne. Thus were formed the two great parties of the Yorkists and the Lancastrians. The former adopted a white rose and the latter a red rose as a badge—hence the name given to the strife which was ere long to devastate the country. In our next chapter we shall see what was the issue of this struggle between the noble houses.



Costumes of the period.

Chapter XVI.

THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

THE actual fighting in the Wars of the Roses took place between the years 1455 and 1485. There were in all a dozen pitched battles, fought in various parts of the country, and the final fight took place at Bosworth in Leicestershire.



PLUCKING THE ROSES.

(From the picture by John l'ettie, R. A.)

The story goes that before the outbreak of the Wars of the Roses the leaders of the rival factions met in the gardens of the Temple in London, and falling into dispute plucked from the rose bushes the flowers which became the respective emblems of the two parties. (See p. 111.)

The Yorkists were strongest in the south and in the larger towns; the clergy and most of the country gentry favoured the Lancastrians. The king's party was really led by Queen Margaret, who was as brave and masterful as her royal husband was weak and yielding. Four years after the struggle began she met the Duke of York near Wakefield, and completely defeated him. York was slain in the fight, and his head was placed on the gates of the city whence he took his title, with a paper crown upon its brow.

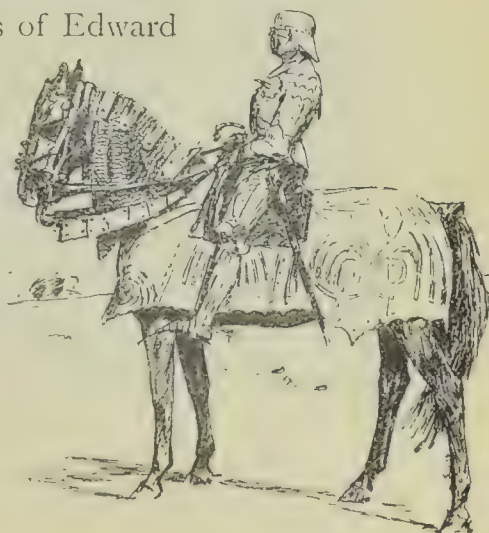
Duke Richard's place was now taken by his son Edward, who marched on London. Margaret hastened after him, but was forced to beat a retreat, and the young duke entering the capital, was able to secure the crown as Edward the Fourth. Then he marched north into Yorkshire, and defeated the Lancastrians with great slaughter at the battle of Towton, which was fought in a furious storm of driving snow.

For some years Margaret was able to hold out and to make some resistance in the north of England. But after a while she was forced to leave the country, and the dethroned King Henry fell into the hands of Edward the Fourth. The succession to the throne seemed to be settled in favour of the House of York; but the final triumph had not yet been gained.

Edward's strongest supporter was the Earl of Warwick, a powerful noble who



Soldiers of the period.



The Earl of Warwick.

earned for himself the proud title of "The King-maker." Warwick wished Edward to marry a French princess ; but the king objected, and secretly married the widow of a noble who had supported the Lancastrians. Thereupon the King-maker resolved to avenge himself by making yet another king.

He at once crossed to France, leagued himself with Queen Margaret, and sent messengers across the Channel to stir up insurrections in various parts of the country. Then he landed in England with Queen Margaret, and before long King Edward was in his turn an exile in France. But he soon returned, gathered his friends together, marched on London, and gained a great victory at Barnet, where the Kingmaker met his death. Margaret's son, Prince Edward, for whom she had fought and schemed so long, was killed at Tewkesbury, and not long afterwards her husband, King Henry, was secretly put to death in the Tower.

Once more the House of York seemed to have established itself. For twelve years Edward reigned without serious dispute, and when he died the crown passed to his youthful son, Edward the Fifth.

But the struggle was not really at an end. The troubled times needed a strong ruler, and the boy-king's uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, nicknamed Crookback, saw his opportunity. He turned traitor to his nephew, whose guardian he was, and had himself crowned as Richard the Third.



Richard Crookback.



THE DEATH OF WARWICK AT THE BATTLE OF BARNET.
(From the picture by T. A. Houston, R.S.A.)

*The little princes.*

Then the news spread that the young king and his brother, the Duke of York, had been murdered in the Tower, and rumour said that the foul deed had been done by the order of Richard of Gloucester. Two hundred years later two small skeletons were found buried near the foot of a staircase in that gloomy building, and the discovery seems to support the truth of the tale. At all events the boys had disappeared, and Richard now thought himself secure. But he did not long enjoy his exalted position. The Wars of the Roses were not yet ended.

There was still living in France the head of the Lancastrian House, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who resolved to win the crown from England's hated king. His father was a Welsh gentleman, and having many friends in Wales he landed in that country, collected an army, and met Richard the Third at Bosworth Field. In one of the finest scenes of his historical plays, Shakespeare describes the defeat and death of Richard in this battle and the triumph of his opponent, who was hailed on the field as Henry the Seventh.

The new king may justly be called a champion of unity. He was himself, as we have seen, head of the House of Lancaster. He married Elizabeth of York, and thus united the two great rival factions. Moreover, being of Welsh parentage, he was acceptable to the Welsh people as their king, and became the

acknowledged monarch of the whole country south of the Scottish border.

We must now try to gain some idea of the relations between England and Scotland, and between England and Ireland, during this period.

Since the death of Scotland's poet king, James the First, the northern kingdom had seen many changes which we cannot trace here. But eighteen years after Henry the Seventh came to the throne he took a step which eventually led to the union of the two kingdoms under one monarch. He married his daughter, the Princess Margaret, to James the Fourth of Scotland. A century later a great-grandson of this princess, who was King of Scotland, became the first King of Great Britain.



Margaret Tudor.

We have seen how Richard the Second dealt with Art MacMurrough, the Irish chieftain. After the final departure of the English king, this warlike leader pursued his own course, and during the rest of his life he led many a raid upon his foes, both English and Irish. In the time of Henry the Seventh there landed in Ireland a youth named Lambert Simnel, who said he was a nephew of Edward the Fourth, and therefore the rightful heir to the English crown. He found many supporters, and was actually crowned as king in a Dublin church. Not long afterwards he crossed the Irish Sea; but having been defeated by the royal forces at Stoke, he was taken



A halberdier of the period.

*A falconer*

before King Henry, who, in scorn of his weakness, pardoned him and made him one of the keepers of the royal hawks.

Another pretender to the throne, Perkin Warbeck by name, also used Ireland as a starting-point for an expedition against Henry the Seventh. But after some adventures he was taken by the English king and put to death. The fact that these two adventurers found a welcome in Ireland shows how disturbed was the state of that country, and how slight was the authority of the English king over its people. Henry the Seventh did what he could to bind Ireland more strongly to England, but without much success.

Chapter XVII.

THE TIME OF THE EIGHTH HENRY.

OUR last chapter was a chronicle of wars and plots, of "the lion and the unicorn fighting for the crown." But it is remarkable how little these struggles between the great nobles of the country affected the English nation, or, at least, the great mass of the people which forms the working part of the nation. The land was tilled, trade went on and increased, and the law was administered in the usual manner.

The fighting among the nobles and their retainers

*A ship of Tudor times.*

was unsettling, however, and the people of England were quite ready to support almost any king who was strong enough to keep order. Henry the Seventh was such a monarch, and being a clever man he was not slow to take full advantage of the state of affairs which promised to make the king the strongest power in the land.

Parliament and the people were not disposed to inquire too closely into the king's actions so long as he kept the unruly nobles in order. The noble houses were too much exhausted by their losses during the war to offer any strong resistance. Consequently the Tudor sovereigns, Henry the Seventh, Henry the Eighth, and Queen Elizabeth, exercised great, indeed almost despotic, power without arousing any very serious opposition.

One of the greatest peaceful revolutions of our history took place while the Wars of the Roses were going on. This was the introduction of printing into the country. The pioneer in this work was William Caxton, who set up our first printing-press at Westminster, and whose workshop was visited by the king, Edward the Fourth, as is shown in our picture on page 109.

Another important event in the march of peaceful progress was the voyage of John Cabot, a native of Genoa, who in 1497 sailed from Bristol, planted the flag of England on the island of Newfoundland and



Henry VIII.

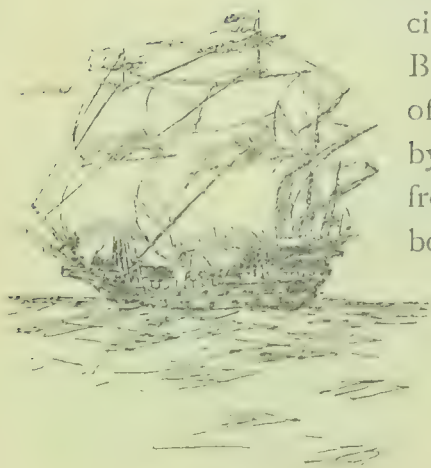
the adjacent coasts, and thus began in a small way what has been aptly called "the great adventure"—the establishment of our empire overseas.

Besides this, Henry the Seventh had the opportunity of becoming the helper and patron of Cabot's more famous countryman, Christopher Columbus, who sent his brother to the English court to ask for the help which he had failed to obtain elsewhere. But Henry the Seventh was a very careful man where money was concerned, and he hesitated so long that the opportunity was lost. Meanwhile Columbus had found a helper in Isabella of Spain, and that country became the pioneer in exploring the new world across the Atlantic.

In the same year that Cabot discovered the mainland of North America a Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama, led the way round the Cape of Good Hope to the coast of India, that land which was destined to form one of the most important divisions of the British Empire.

Meanwhile a change had taken place in the south-east of Europe which was to have a great effect upon the civilization of the western part of the continent.

Two years before the Wars of the Roses began, the city of Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire, and for centuries a centre of Greek learning and civilization, was taken by the Turks, a people who came originally from Central Asia. Constantinople had long been a Christian city, while the Turks were



A warship of the period.



THE DEPARTURE OF JOHN AND SEBASTIAN CABOT ON THEIR FIRST VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY, 1497.
(From the painting by Ernest Board. By permission of the Bristol Corporation and the Artist.)

followers of the prophet Mohammed, and compared with the people whom they had conquered were a race of barbarians. The fall of Constantinople was therefore a loss to civilization in the south-east of Europe.



Florence.

But this loss resulted in great gain to Western Europe; for the scholars of the fallen city took refuge in Florence and other wealthy cities of Italy, and students flocked to them from all parts of Europe to partake of their treasures of learning. Pupils came from Germany, France, and England, and on their return to their own countries helped to spread abroad the knowledge of literature and art which they had gained from the exiled scholars.

This movement, combined with the discoveries of Columbus, Cabot, and Vasco da Gama, had a great effect upon the mind of Europe. We speak of this time as the "Renaissance," or "New Birth," because men were now emerging from the darkness of comparative ignorance to the light of a new age. A wider and fuller life was opening out for the human race. So the first period of our national story closes not in the darkness of night, but in the first promise of a glorious dawn.

When Henry the Seventh died he was succeeded by his son, Henry the Eighth, whose reign was a momentous time in British history. It was a long reign, full of great events and the beginnings of great movements,

but we have space for little more than a summary of what actually took place.

The new king quarrelled with the Pope, and the result of this quarrel was the separation of the Church in England from that of Rome. The quarrel arose out of the desire of Henry to divorce his wife, Catherine of Aragon, and to marry Anne Boleyn, one of her maids of honour. The management of this difficult affair was entrusted to Cardinal Wolsey, but this powerful and astute minister failed to obtain from the Pope the divorce which his master desired. He consequently fell into disgrace, and died shortly afterwards.



Cardinal Wolsey.

He was succeeded by the learned Sir Thomas More, who refused to join the king in his plan of severing the English Church from the Church of Rome, and who was consequently beheaded on Tower Hill, a martyr to his conscience.

Having thrown off the authority of Rome and established himself as head of the English Church, Henry now proceeded to do away with the English monasteries, the inmates of which, he said, were very unruly. Some of them, no doubt, lived an idle and wicked life, but Henry's real desire was to possess himself of the wealth of these institutions. The suppression of the religious houses Henry entrusted to a new adviser, Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded no better than his predecessors in pleasing the king, and was beheaded in consequence.



Thomas Cromwell

It had always been Wolsey's aim to make his royal master very powerful on the Continent, and in this he had succeeded. The friendship of the English king was eagerly sought by the powerful monarchs of France and Spain of that time, who were continually at war with each other; and this tended to make England of much greater account on the Continent than it had formerly been.



A crossbowman of the period.

In the early part of the reign of Henry the Eighth the battle of Flodden was fought between the Scots and the English. James the Fourth of Scotland, who was the brother-in-law of the English king, had quarrelled with Henry, and invaded Northumberland with a fine army. He was met by the Earl of Surrey and completely defeated, being himself slain together with the flower of his nobility. But these wars between the two kingdoms were destined soon to cease.

Chapter XVIII.

THE VIRGIN QUEEN.

IN the time of Henry the Eighth there began in England those fierce disputes about religious matters which form the greatest blot upon the history of this period. Protestant strove with Catholic and Catholic with Protestant, and each side as they obtained the



HENRY VIII. AND CARDINAL WOLSEY.
(From the painting by Sir John Gilbert, R.A., in the Guildhall
Art Gallery, London.)

power did not scruple to put to death those who did not agree with them. Large numbers both of Protestants and of Catholics died at the stake rather than give up their religious faith.



Edward VI.

When Henry the Eighth died he was succeeded by his young son Edward the Sixth, who favoured the Protestants, and made many changes in the English Church. In his time was issued the first "Book of Common Prayer," the earliest form of the book which is still used in the English Church services. Other changes were made which were not so well received. In many places the spirit of opposition to the Church of Rome found expression in the ruthless destruction of all that had made the church buildings most beautiful—sculpture, carving, or stained-glass windows—and caused a desolation which exists even to this day, as the number of our ruined churches will testify.

Henry the Eighth had aimed at uniting the two kingdoms of England and Scotland by a marriage between the five-year-old queen, known later as Mary Queen of Scots, and the young Prince Edward of England; and this had been agreed to by the Protestant party in Scotland, then in the ascendant. The influence of the Roman Catholic party, however, led to the agreement being broken, and English forces invaded Scotland and defeated the Scots at the battle of Pinkie. Queen Mary was shortly afterwards



A Tudor hall

sent over to France and wedded to the eldest son of the French king. We shall hear of this queen again.

Edward the Sixth died while yet a boy, and was succeeded by his half-sister Mary. She was a devoted Catholic, and she married Philip the Second of Spain, one of the most powerful rulers of the time. Her most earnest desire was to unite England once more to the Church of Rome, and in the attempt to accomplish this the queen sanctioned that fierce persecution of the Protestants for which she was given the unenviable title of "Bloody Mary." Even her husband, zealous Catholic as he was, begged the queen to be more lenient with the "heretics" of her country.

Mary's marriage with Philip of Spain led to a war with France, during which England lost her last possession on the mainland of Europe, the town of Calais. This occurred in 1558, rather more than two hundred years after the battle of Crécy. Thus the last thread of the English connection with the Continent was severed not long before the union of the crown of England with that of Scotland, of which we are shortly to read.

The loss of Calais is said to have hastened the death of Queen Mary of England, who was already suffering from an incurable disease. She was succeeded by her half-sister Elizabeth, whose reign was one of the most glorious in the history of England.

The reign of the "Virgin Queen," as she was called,



Queen Mary of England.



The Armada in Sight.
(From the painting by Seymour Lucas, R.A. By permission of Mr. Arthur Lucas.)

is marked by many events and movements of great importance which we cannot here trace in detail. The principal matters for us to consider are—(1) Elizabeth's attitude towards the religious troubles of the time, (2) her dealings with Scotland, (3) her dispute with Spain, and (4) the intellectual and adventurous spirit of her time.

Queen Elizabeth had no strong religious convictions, but she favoured the Protestants, realizing that her interests required their support. She wished her people to live at peace on religious matters, for she knew that the country had foreign enemies against whom it would be necessary before long to make a united stand.

The queen was the daughter of that Anne Boleyn for the sake of whom Henry the Eighth had put away his first wife, Queen Catherine. There were many people who said that on this account Queen Elizabeth had no right to the throne, and that Mary Queen of Scots was the rightful heir to the crown of England.

Mary had been for a short time queen-consort of France; but her young husband died, and she returned to rule over her own kingdom of Scotland. Mary was a devoted Catholic, and her claim to the English crown had the secret support of many of the nobles in England who were of that persuasion.

Before Mary's return Scotland had become sternly Protestant; a national Presbyterian Church had been

(1,434)

8

*A lady of the period.**Mary Queen of Scots.*

set up, and worship according to the forms of the Roman Catholic Church was forbidden by law. Queen Mary soon earned the ill-will of large numbers of her Scottish subjects, not only on account of her religion, but also on account of her gaiety and love of amusement, which they did not understand or appreciate. Before long, indeed, there arose in the country a party in favour of her deposition. The queen's husband, Lord Darnley, with whom she had quarrelled, was killed in a mysterious manner, and this event was shortly afterwards followed by Queen Mary's marriage to a Scottish noble, the Earl of Bothwell, who was suspected of Darnley's murder. This aroused so strong a feeling against her that she was forced to abdicate in favour of her young son, who became King of Scotland as James the Sixth.

The deposed queen was imprisoned, but she soon managed to escape. She raised an army, but was defeated, and fled into England, craving shelter from Elizabeth. Mary was at once placed in strict confinement, but before long her prison became the centre of many plots, which aimed not only at setting her free, but also at the assassination of Elizabeth, and the union of England and Scotland under Mary as queen.

For nineteen years Queen Mary was a captive in England, and during all this time her presence was a source of continual danger, not only to Queen Elizabeth herself, but also to the peace of the realm.



The island in Loch Leven on which Queen Mary was imprisoned.



QUEEN MARY'S FAREWELL TO FRANCE.
(From the picture by Robert Herdman, R.S.A.)

At last the advisers of the English queen persuaded her that the safety and peace of the kingdom required that Mary should be put to death, and after much hesitation on the part of Elizabeth the warrant for her execution was signed, and the unhappy queen of Scotland was beheaded.

"Tell my friends that I die a good Catholic," said Mary on the scaffold. She had indeed hoped to establish in both England and Scotland the "old faith," and she had joined the Catholic League, headed by Philip the Second of Spain, with whom we are to make further acquaintance in our next chapter.



A moated house of the period.

Chapter XIX.

THE GREAT ARMADA.

IT was in the year following the execution of Mary Queen of Scots that Philip sent out his "Invincible Armada." This great fleet was designed to protect his transports while they carried across the Channel from Dunkirk a large army, at the head of which the Duke of Parma meant to march upon London. The imminent danger roused the English queen to a pitch of heroism. She rode down to Tilbury, where she reviewed the troops which had been mustered to

protect the capital, and there she delivered a speech which is one of the noblest in the history of warfare.

"I know," she said, "I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and courage of a king, and a king of England too; and I think foul scorn that Parma or Spain or any prince of Europe should dare to invade the borders of my realm; to which, rather than any dishonour shall grow by me, I myself will take up arms, I myself will be your general, judge, and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field."

How the "great fleet invincible" was beaten, shattered, and driven before the storm "with a southerly wind to the northwards," we have not space to tell in detail here. Philip of Spain is said to have consoled himself with the fact that it was the storm and not the English which had thwarted his ambitious designs. But none knew better than he what the defeat of the Invincible Armada really meant. It meant the strengthening of Protestantism in Britain, the increased prestige of the island nation among the peoples of Western Europe, and, last but by no means least, the sweeping from the ocean of the warships of Spain, which had so long thwarted the efforts of English sailors to go a-voyaging in the western seas.

Since the time of Columbus the Spaniards had established a great oversea empire in Central and South America, and had won enormous wealth from



Armour of the time.

the mines and forests of those regions. English sailors—Drake, Raleigh, and others—had dared the Spaniards again and again to keep them out of the western seas, where gold and glory could be won. But now the way was clear for all. The destruction of the great fleet of Spain opened the way for the establishment of “Britain Beyond the Seas.”

Drake, the first Englishman to sail round the world, and Raleigh, the courtly sailor who dreamed of and worked for the founding of an English state in America, were only two of the famous “sea-dogs” of the reign of the Virgin Queen. There were also Martin Frobisher and John Davis, whose names on the map of the North American continent are memorials of their efforts to find a north-west passage to India; brave Sir John Hawkins, who could find no better outlet for his fierce energies than the inhuman traffic in slaves between Africa and America; the chivalrous Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who tried to establish a colony in Newfoundland; and many another equally brave and venturesome, but less well known to fame.

It was indeed a “spacious time,” distinguished in history by many names of world-wide renown, not only in the arts of war, but also in the arts of peace. It was the time of Shakespeare, the greatest poet of all time; of Sir Philip Sidney, soldier, man of letters, and accomplished gentleman; and of Spenser, the writer of that famous poem, “The Faërie Queene.”



Queen Elizabeth.



QUEEN ELIZABETH AT TILBURY FORT.

(From the cartoon by Daniel Maclise, R.A. By permission of the Council of the Art Union of London.)



A Spaniard of the period.

Spenser held an important post in Ireland under Queen Elizabeth. The queen was making an attempt to complete the subjugation of Ireland, which for centuries had been the victim of civil strife and misgovernment, and might at any time serve as a base for a foreign enemy desirous of making an attack upon England. At one time, indeed, a number of Spaniards came to the help of the native Irish, but they were quickly taken and most of them put to death.

Efforts had been made in the reign of Queen Mary to settle parts of Central Ireland with English colonists, but these settlements did not prosper. Elizabeth continued the plan, and adopted other devices for establishing English domination throughout Ireland, but without any great success.

We have now to notice the important historical change which took place at the death of Elizabeth. When the great queen lay dying, she named as her successor the Scottish king, James the Sixth, the son of Mary Queen of Scots, who was the acknowledged heir to the crown. Thus when she passed away the two kingdoms were finally united under one monarch, never again to be separated, except for a short period during the troubled time of the great Civil War (see page 155).

The new monarch was styled King of Great Britain and Ireland. At last, then, we have unity within the

borders of the British Isles, although there were many manifestations of disunion in the years that were to come. But the great fact remains that not long after our loss of Calais, our last foothold upon the European continent, we became a more or less united nation, ready to take a leading part in the history of the world.

It was just at this time, too, as we have seen, that the exploits of our sailors showed to the world that the "narrow seas" near the British Isles were not to bound their enterprise. Even thus early in the history of the united nation did it become evident that the national mission was to establish a greater Britain in lands beyond the sea; though it would be wrong to assert that the nation had at the time any clear ideas or settled purpose with regard to this matter.



Costume of the time of Elizabeth.

PART II.

THE SETTLEMENT OF THE NATION.

Chapter XX.

THE DIVINE RIGHT OF KINGS.

THE Scottish king, James the Sixth, who became the first monarch of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, was also the first of the Stuart line of sovereigns who occupied the English throne. The second division of our history, which we commence with this chapter, is largely concerned with the attempt of the Stuart kings to make the royal power supreme in the government of the country.

It was James the First, as we must now call the new king, who insisted that he had a "divine right" to rule, and that he was God's vicegerent, owing no responsibility to the people of his realm. This right was also claimed by his son, Charles the First, as we shall see, and with disastrous consequences to himself. It was re-asserted by a later Stuart king, and the



James I.



THE PILGRIM FATHERS LEAVING DELFT HAVEN.

(From the mural painting by C. W. Cope, R.A.)

A party of Puritan exiles from England who lived some years in Holland, whence they sailed in 1620 for America.

second part of our story ends with the downfall of this monarch and the triumph of the nation through its representatives in Parliament. The general subject of the following chapters, therefore, is "The King *versus* the People."

The new "King of Great Britain and Ireland" was a Protestant, like his great predecessor Elizabeth; but, unlike her, he was unable to command the respect of those who differed from him in religious matters. He favoured that section of the Protestant Church which was ruled by bishops, and he won the hatred both of the Roman Catholics and of those Protestants who did not approve of the rule of these church dignitaries. Among the latter were James's Scottish subjects, most of whom were Presbyterians, and a large body of the English people who did not wish to worship according to the forms of the Church of England.

The Roman Catholics hoped that James would get Parliament to set aside the repressive laws which had been made against them. In this they were disappointed, and a few of them formed the famous Gunpowder Plot, which aimed at the destruction of King, Lords, and Commons at one blow. Fortunately, this "Guy Fawkes" plot was discovered in time, under circumstances familiar to us all.

The Separatists, or Nonconformists, were also disappointed in their new king. They were eager, not only for freedom of worship, but also for that political



Jacobean architecture.

freedom which was not by any means acceptable to King James. When they found that there was no hope of this, some of them crossed the seas and settled for a time in Holland. A little later they sailed for North America, on the eastern seaboard of which a number of Englishmen had recently established a colony, to which they had given the name of Virginia, in honour of the Virgin Queen.

These emigrants, known in history as the Pilgrim Fathers, sailed across the Atlantic in the *Mayflower*, landed near Cape Cod, and with great difficulty established a new colony there. At the end of ten years their number was some three hundred, and this was afterwards increased by the arrival of other emigrants from home. Thus the religious strife of the time of King James was one of the causes of that expansion which has brought about the establishment of our world-wide empire.

In the time of King James an important step was taken in connection with Ireland. Two leaders of the native Irish in the province of Ulster, having quarrelled with King James's governor in Dublin, left the country, and their estates were confiscated. A large number of English and Scottish settlers were sent over to occupy their land, and as a result of this "plantation" or colonization this part of Ireland soon became peaceful and prosperous. The land was cultivated, flax was grown, and the north-eastern



Cottages of the period.

province eventually became the seat of a great linen industry and the wealthiest part of the country.

But it was in his dealings with Parliament that James the First made his sinister mark in the history of our country. As we have already said, he hoped to bend this assembly entirely to his will. During the time of his predecessor, Queen Elizabeth, there had been unmistakable signs that Parliament meant to have a decided share in the management of affairs, and when its leaders took a firm stand Queen Elizabeth always yielded gracefully. James the First was of a different temper. He had no idea of yielding on any point, and there were many matters on which he was by no means in agreement with his Parliament. Hence there arose constant quarrels over affairs of government, which showed that a great struggle was impending.

The open quarrel, however, did not begin until after the death of James the First, who was succeeded by his son Charles the First. The new king had adopted his father's ideas of the kingly right and privilege, and it was not long before he put them into practice.

His chief adviser was the Duke of Buckingham, under whose misgovernment the country was soon involved in an inglorious war with both France and Spain; and in order to protect his favourite from an impeachment by Parliament Charles dissolved that body, with the intention of governing the country without its help or interference.



Charles I.

The king had now no legal means of obtaining money, and therefore fell back upon the method of "forced loans" from people who were known to be rich. Some of them refused to obey him, and were imprisoned. Thus the king was really violating the principles of the Great Charter. Want of money soon forced him to summon another Parliament, but before granting him any supplies the members drew up a paper known as the Petition of Right, which stated clearly some of the elementary rights of the nation. The king, unwillingly enough, gave his assent to this, and received a grant of money. The quarrel with his Parliament, however, was by no means at an end; it was really only beginning.

Not long afterwards the Duke of Buckingham met his death at the hands of an assassin. Soon afterwards Charles dissolved his third Parliament, and for the space of eleven years he carried on the government of the country without one. His foremost advisers during this period were Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. We shall see in our next chapter how the new form of government prospered.



Hampton Court. (See page 152.)

Chapter XXI.

THE CIVIL WAR.

*A Roundhead.*

FOR eleven years King Charles ruled without a Parliament, and during this period his chief minister was the Earl of Strafford, one of whose leading ideas of government was to overawe his opponents by means of a standing army. Money was obtained for the king by means of heavy fines imposed upon the rich for all sorts of offences. Those who dared to oppose or to criticize the royal advisers were put in prison, whipped, branded with hot irons, or condemned to stand in the pillory.

Archbishop Laud was a ruler of the same stamp as Strafford, and a special court over which he presided inflicted fines and imprisonment on many who did not conform to the doctrines and form of worship of the Church of England.

It is not surprising that before long the nation was roused to resistance. When the royal advisers had revived an old tax known as ship-money, which used to be levied on the coast towns in time of war, John Hampden, a gentleman of the inland county of Buckingham, refused to pay the tax, and was tried by order of the king. The judges, whose places were held by royal favour, decided against Hampden, but the circumstances of the trial clearly showed that the



Charles I. and Speaker Lenthall.
(From the painting by C. W. Cope, R.A., in the *Houses of Parliament*.)
The King's attempt to arrest the "five members."

first decisive step in resistance to the king's authority had been taken.



Women's dress of the period.

In the same year Archbishop Laud attempted to make the Church of Scotland adopt the rest of the English forms of worship. The result was a general rising in the northern kingdom, and thousands of all ranks of the people, known hereafter as the Covenanters, signed the famous National Covenant, binding themselves to resist to the death any changes in religious matters.

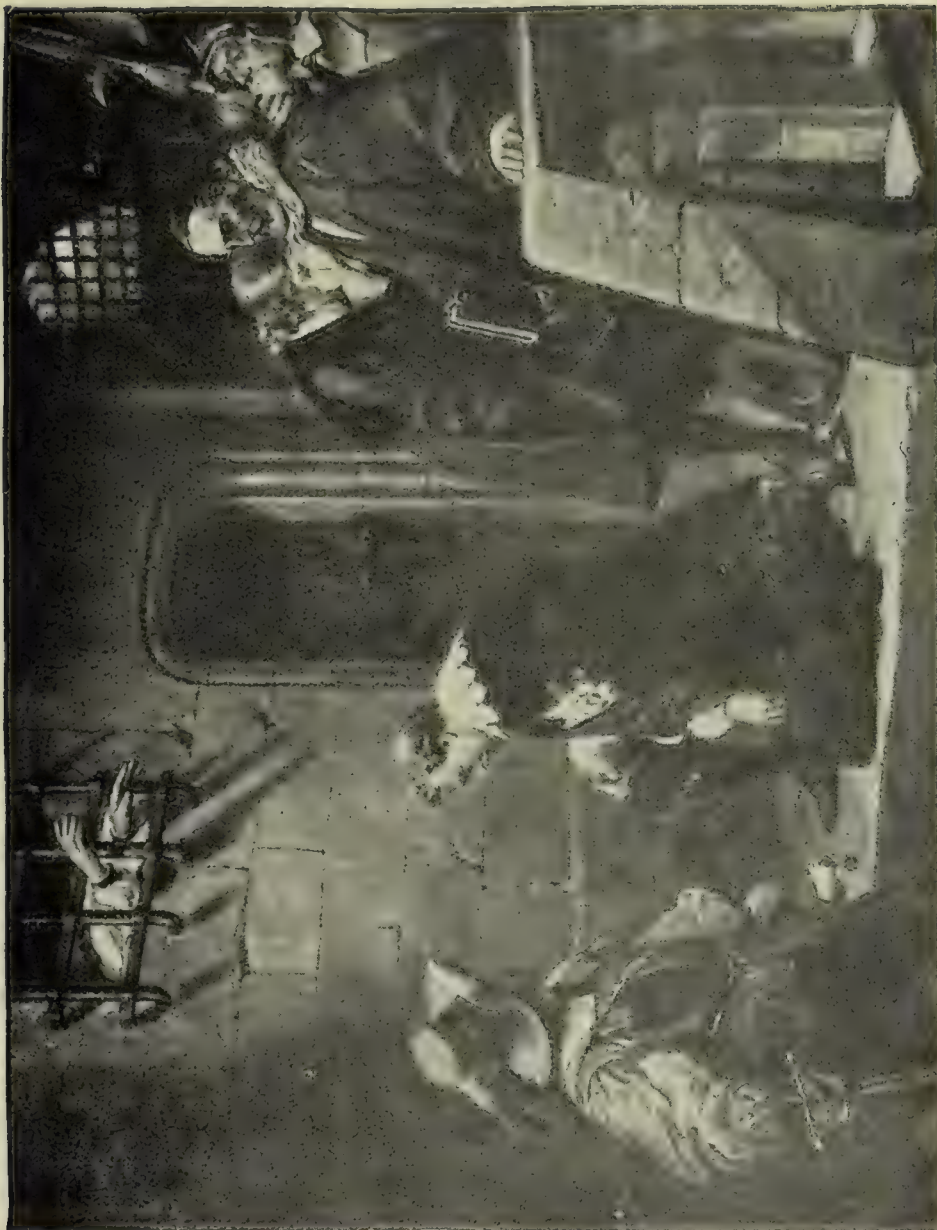
The Covenanters, who were in deadly earnest, seized the castles of Edinburgh and Stirling. Charles led an army northwards to punish his rebellious subjects; but when the king saw that his army was greatly outnumbered by that of the Scots, he made a treaty with them and returned to London. The Scottish Parliament then made laws to secure the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland. Charles objected to these, and treated the Scots as if they were in rebellion.

Thereupon General Leslie, with a Scottish army, marched across the Border, and defeated some of Charles's soldiers at Newburn, near Newcastle. The king again made peace with the Scots, and even agreed to pay them a large sum of money to maintain their forces in England until the dispute about Church matters should be settled.

In order to obtain the necessary money, Charles called together a new Parliament; but instead of



Stirling Castle.



THE EARL OF STRAFFORD ON HIS WAY TO EXECUTION.
(*From the painting by Paul Delaroche. By permission of the Duke of Sutherland.*)
Strafford is kneeling to receive Laud's blessing as he passes the window of the Archbishop's cell.



Lady of Charles I.'s time.

voting money for the king's use, the members began forthwith to discuss the grievances of the nation. Charles dissolved it, but in the same year summoned what was destined to become the most famous Parliament in British history, and to last with varying fortune for no less than twenty years. This is known, fitly enough, as the Long Parliament.

This Parliament first passed a law that it could not be dissolved without its own consent. Then it boldly began to call the king's advisers to account. Strafford was charged with treason against his country, condemned to death, and beheaded. Archbishop Laud was thrown into prison, and four years later he also was beheaded. The illegal courts were abolished, and all images and altars in churches were ordered to be destroyed. This last step reminds us that the great struggle was not only political but religious.

The Commons then drew up a famous paper known as the Grand Remonstrance. It set forth all the illegal acts of the king and his advisers since the beginning of the reign. Charles went to the House of Commons with a body of troopers to arrest five of its members—among them John Hampden—who had been specially active against him; but being warned of his coming, they escaped. London was thrown into a state of great excitement by this attempt of Charles to defy the authority of Parliament, and the streets were filled with people, many of whom

uttered ominous threats against the king on his return to his palace.

The final demand of the Parliament, that Charles should give up the command of the army, met with a decided refusal.

Not long afterwards Charles made his way to York, and thence to Hull. The governor of the latter place was on the side of the Parliament, and refused to open the gates. It was plain that force alone could end the quarrel between king and Parliament, and so the Civil War began. Charles raised his standard at Nottingham; the Earl of Essex mustered the army of the Parliament at Northampton; and now king and people were face to face in a determined struggle.

The king's men were given the name of Cavaliers (that is, horsemen), and were distinguished by their gay dress and their long hair. They included most of the nobility and gentry and many of the clergy. Those on the side of the Parliament—called Roundheads, because many of them wore their hair closely cropped—were chiefly tradesmen and shopkeepers; but they also included a few of the landed gentry and nobility.

The armed struggle which now began lasted for some seven years, and battles were fought with varying results in many parts of England. In a fight at Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire, John Hampden met his death. In the same year the royal forces were beaten at Newbury.



A Cavalier.

*An Ironside.*

In the same year the Scots joined the Parliamentary army, an agreement called the Solemn League and Covenant having been signed by representatives of the two Parliaments; and in 1644 the combined forces won a victory at Marston Moor, for which most of the credit was due to the horsemen known as the Ironsides, under the command of Oliver Cromwell. This leader was a country gentleman of Cambridgeshire, and he was destined to take a foremost part in the history of our country.

While the Parliaments of England and Scotland had entered into an alliance, mainly in the interests of the Presbyterian form of Church government, the Marquis of Montrose, who had been a Covenanter, now gathered an army of Scottish Royalists to fight for Charles. He gained six battles in Scotland, and was marching to England to help the king, when he was defeated at Philiphaugh in the Lowlands.

After the battle of Naseby, where the king's forces were decisively routed, Charles gave himself up to the Scottish army at Newark. The Scots offered to fight for him if he would sign the National Covenant, but this he would not do; so he was given up to the English Parliamentary army, the Scots first stipulating that their arrears of pay, amounting to a large sum of money, should be paid, and that no harm should be done to the king's person.

The English Parliament was now divided into



CHARLES I. LEAVING WESTMINSTER HALL AFTER HIS TRIAL.
(From the painting by Sir John Gilbert, R.A., in the Mappin Art Gallery, Sheffield.
By permission of the Corporation of Sheffield.)

*A Puritan.*

two parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents. The Presbyterians wished merely to lessen the king's power and make him rule by the advice of the Parliament; the Independents, of whom Cromwell was the head, wanted to do without a king altogether. Charles was taken to Hampton Court. Thence he escaped to Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight, where, however, he was watched more closely than ever.

A majority of the Parliament was in favour of coming to terms with the king; but his attempts to intrigue with the Scots, and to play off one party against another, together with the royalist plots and insurrections which disturbed the country, made it impossible to reach a settlement of the dispute. The leaders of the army were determined to bring the king to trial. Cromwell sent one of his officers to prevent the Presbyterian members from entering the House of Commons, and only about fifty of his own supporters were allowed to take their seats. The members present at once resolved on the trial of the king, and a court was set up for this purpose.

King Charles was charged with breaking the laws of the country, and with making war on his subjects. The king refused to acknowledge the authority of the court, which had not been formed according to the laws of the land, and demanded to be arraigned before his peers, who alone had the right to try him. He also said that the blame of the war rested with

the Parliamentary leaders, as they first took up arms. For seven days the trial went on, and thirty-two witnesses were examined. When the king entered the court on the eighth day, the presiding judge was dressed in red ; and on that day he received sentence of death as an enemy of his country. Three days later he was beheaded in front of his own palace of Whitehall, and met his death with true courage.

So ended the first stage of the great struggle between the Crown and the Parliament. We have seen that it was only a section of the leaders who were in favour of taking extreme measures with the king. We must also remember that King Charles believed himself to be acting within his rights in his dealings with Parliament. He was, however, utterly untrustworthy, and unable to see that the people of the country had any rights at all, or that they ought to have a voice in the management of national affairs.



Prince Rupert, who fought for King Charles.



A musketeer of Charles I.'s time.



"TAKE AWAY THAT BAUBLE!"
(From the painting by Benjamin West, P.R.A.)
Cromwell expelling the members of the Long Parliament.

Chapter XXII.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

THE king being dead, the English Parliament, or what was left of it, set up a Council of State, which took in hand the task of governing the "Commonwealth," as the country was now to be called. But the Scots proclaimed as their king Charles, the son of the late monarch, who was at that time in Holland. So the union of the two kingdoms was dissolved, though not for long, as we shall see.

Cromwell was, of course, the chief military leader of the new English Government, and one of the first pieces of work which he undertook was the restoration of order in Ireland, which for some years had been in a state of rebellion and anarchy. In the space of nine months he restored order of a kind, though he "made a wilderness, and called it peace."

He stormed the town of Drogheda, and put some three thousand people to the sword. None were spared in that stern slaughter, and a crowd of fugitives who sought refuge in a church had the place burnt about their ears. The same severe measures were taken in other parts of the country, and much of the land of which Cromwell took forcible possession was given to colonists from the other side of the Irish Sea. It is small wonder that the name of Crom-

*Cromwell.*

well is to this day remembered with bitterness in Ireland.



General Leslie.

Meanwhile the Scots had sent for their new king, and as he readily agreed to sign the Covenant, they were prepared to fight for him. Cromwell marched northward to meet their army, whose leader, General David Leslie, proved more than a match for him in strategy. Cromwell's army was hemmed in at Dunbar, and in considerable straits for food, when the Scots, urged on by their too eager preachers, rashly left a strong position to offer battle. "The Lord has delivered them into my hand!" was Cromwell's exclamation as he led his Ironsides to the charge. Broken by the shock, the Scottish cavalry drove headlong among their own infantry, scattering and trampling them down, until all was mad panic and wild confusion. The English lost not more than twenty men, and slew three thousand Scots. Ten thousand prisoners were taken in this "Dunbar Drove."

Unbroken in spirit, the Scots gathered another army. Prince Charles was taken to Scone and crowned as monarch of the northern kingdom. When spring came the fighting was resumed, and a Scottish army marched boldly into England "for a stroke at the heart of the Commonwealth itself," with Cromwell following closely behind.

He came up with the invaders at Worcester, where a desperate fight took place, Charles himself taking



CROMWELL DICTATING DISPATCHES TO HIS SECRETARY, JOHN MILTON, THE FAMOUS POET.

(From the painting by Ford Madox Brown.)

The central figure is that of Andrew Marvell, another poet of the period.

an active part in the struggle. "Indeed it was a stiff business," wrote Cromwell later; but he lived to call the victory which followed his "crowning mercy." There was no more fight left in the Royalist party. The young king made his escape to France, after a series of exciting adventures. Scotland was forthwith united to England on terms which, but for the compulsion behind them, gave little reason for complaint.



Admiral de Ruyter.

Having thus triumphed over outside foes, Cromwell now turned his attention to those of his own household. Parliament, or the remnant of it which usurped the name, was composed of self-seeking men, and was in no sense representative of the nation. One day Cromwell appeared among them, rated them soundly, declared they were "no Parliament," and calling in some of his soldiers whom he had left outside, hustled the members from the chamber. In this dramatic manner he dissolved Parliament, and henceforth he was master of the country.

In the new Constitution which was drawn up, a Parliament was to be chosen which would represent Scotland and Ireland as well as England. Cromwell ruled over the three kingdoms with the title of "Lord Protector of the Commonwealth," and until his death, some three years later, he was in all but name King of Great Britain and Ireland. On the whole he governed well, though his attempts at ruling through a

Parliament ended in failure. He kept the peace and enforced respect for the law, and as a consequence the country prospered as it had not done since the days of Elizabeth. Not England alone but Scotland also reaped the benefits of his firm rule. "A man might ride all over Scotland," it was said in his day, "with a switch in his hand and a hundred pounds in his pocket, which he could not have done these five hundred years."

Under his rule the country once more won the respect of foreign nations. Profiting by our unhappy civil strife in the time of King Charles, the Dutch merchants had gained much trade at the expense of the English, but in Cromwell's time our prestige was restored. Admiral Blake, one of the greatest of our admirals, drove the ships of Holland from the British seas, and boldly attacked and destroyed a Spanish fleet lying in the harbour of Santa Cruz. So strong was the Lord Protector at this time that he was able to prevent the Duke of Savoy from persecuting his Protestant subjects; for Cromwell, like Queen Elizabeth, was the determined champion of the Protestant cause in Western Europe.

We must not forget, however, that the Protector acted in many ways as illegally as the king who had met his death on the scaffold at Whitehall. He desired indeed, to govern with the assistance of Parliament, but found this impossible. He was therefore obliged

to raise money by means which were strictly illegal, and on the whole he ruled more by force of arms than by force of law.

This state of things could not last. The country was unconsciously working out a more enduring and satisfactory method of government by which the nation was to govern itself. How this process was continued we shall see in the next few chapters.

Cromwell died at the age of fifty-nine, worn out by work and anxiety; and when he passed away the country soon fell into disorder, for the success of his government had been dependent entirely upon the strength of his purpose and his will.

Chapter XXIII.

THE RESTORATION.

WHEN Cromwell had passed away there was no one to succeed him in his perilous office. His son Richard tried for a short time to continue the work of the great Protector, but very soon he gladly laid down the burden. Then General Monk, one of Cromwell's great captains, who was in command of the army in Scotland, marched to London, persuaded the remaining fragment of the Long Parliament to meet and dissolve itself, and had a new one chosen which was known



CROMWELL. AT MARSTON MOOR.

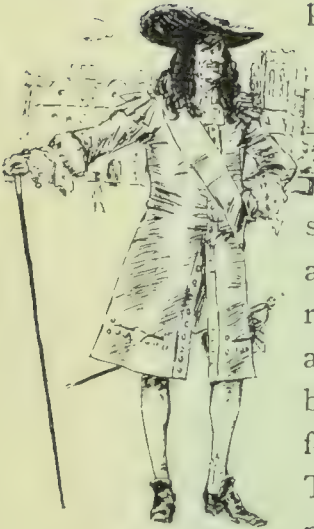
(From the picture by Ernest Crofts, A.R.A.)

as a Convention. This assembly sent to Holland for Prince Charles, who returned on May 29, 1660. He was crowned King of England as Charles the Second. He had been crowned in Scotland nine years before.

Fearing the power of the army, the new Parliament at once disbanded the men who had been Cromwell's chief support. But the king was allowed to keep a regular force—a small standing army, which was afterwards, as we shall see, to become a menace to the peace of the nation. At the time, however, the people were so tired of Puritan rule that they were ready to give the new king almost anything he desired.

Charles is known in history as the "Merry Monarch," chiefly because he had a pleasant wit and very little sense of responsibility. His court was distinguished as the most disgraceful in our history. He was surrounded by a crowd of pleasure-loving people—men and women who spent their time in drinking, gambling, and all kinds of wickedness, in these respects following hard on the footsteps of their royal master. Those who attempted to rebuke or check the coarse pleasures of the Court were laughed at, and Parliament passed many severe laws against the Puritans in England, and especially against their religious teachers.

The Presbyterians of Scotland also felt the displeasure of the new Government; for in spite of his having signed the National Covenant, King Charles hated the Covenanters, and had merely used them for



Charles II.

his own purposes. Before long a fierce persecution was begun, in which Graham of Claverhouse acted as the king's agent, and ruthlessly carried out the work of tracking down the Covenanters. Hundreds took to the hills, where they led a hunted life, and large numbers died of cold and hardship ; others were taken and put to death, in many cases after suffering severe torture.

Not long after the accession of Charles war broke out with Holland, which was at that time our bitter rival upon the sea. Parliament granted large sums of money for the war, as it was felt that a great deal depended upon our being able to overcome the Dutch, whose lucrative carrying trade was the envy of the British merchants. Much of this money, however, was spent on other and less worthy objects.

The British fleet was unfortunate in its leaders, for Charles had chosen as admirals his cousin Prince Rupert and General Monk, who were brave soldiers, but knew little about the management of ships. In a long engagement in the Downs, which lasted for four days, Monk was defeated by the Dutch admiral, De Ruyter (see page 158), though he fought with conspicuous bravery.

At this time two severe troubles fell upon London. A pestilence known as the Great Plague broke out in the city. Large numbers of people died of the disease, and thousands fled from their homes to the



The Fire of London.



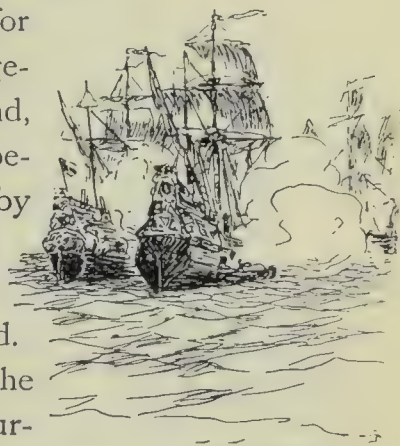
The Great Fire of London.

*(From the mural painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, R.A., in the
Royal Exchange, London.)*

country. When at last the pestilence began to abate, a fire broke out in the city, which swept away two-thirds of the houses, as well as the old Cathedral of St. Paul's, the Guildhall, and a large number of houses of the nobility. But this great fire swept away, at the same time, many of the fever-dens and dirt-encumbered streets; and the new London which rose upon the ashes of the old was a healthier and a better place.

When London was passing through this time of trial a Dutch fleet sailed unchecked up the Thames, burnt the English dockyard and ships at Chatham, and for some days blockaded the port of London. Arrangements were being made to bring the war to an end, but such a disgrace was keenly felt by all. It became known that a great part of the money voted by Parliament for the war had been used by the king for his own pleasures, and the sailors had been disbanded before the war had really come to an end.

But the tale of our troubles is not yet ended. The King of France at this time was Louis the Fourteenth, an ambitious monarch and the champion of the Roman Catholics on the Continent. One of his aims was to add Holland and Belgium to his kingdom, and he secretly entered into an arrangement with King Charles by which the latter was to help the French king by going to war with Holland, and was to receive in return a large yearly sum of money, as well as the help of French troops to crush any rebellion of his



Dutch men-of-war.

subjects which might arise. The King of England also undertook to watch for an opportunity to establish the Roman Catholic religion in his country, for he was at heart an adherent of the "old faith," in spite of his promises to the English nation.

When this secret treaty had been concluded, Charles dissolved his Parliament and declared war on the Dutch, while the French king marched a large army across his north-eastern frontier. The Dutch made a brave resistance, repelled an English attempt at invasion, and drove out the French armies by breaking down their own sea-dikes and flooding large tracts of their country.

Charles then made an attempt to set aside the laws against Nonconformists; but this raised such a storm that he lost heart and desisted, nor did he dare to call upon King Louis to fulfil his promise to send over a French army, with the help of which he might enforce his desires.

The king's attempt to favour the Catholics created an uneasy feeling in the country; and many people were ready to believe even the absurd story of a certain rascal, Titus Oates by name, who said he had discovered the existence of a Popish Plot. The object of this, he said, was to assassinate the king, and with the help of a French army to place upon the throne his brother James, Duke of York, who was a Roman Catholic.



Westminster Abbey.



THE FALL OF CLARENDON.

(From the painting by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)

The Earl of Clarendon was King Charles's chief minister, and at first had great influence with that monarch, besides being very popular with the nation. But in time he lost the favour of the king, and was dismissed for various reasons, some of which were to his personal credit.

The question now arose whether Prince James should be allowed to succeed the king, for he was heir-apparent, King Charles having no heir. This question divided the country into two parties—the Whigs, who wished to pass over the Duke of York and secure the Protestant succession; and the Tories, who wished to see him succeed his brother.

Meanwhile, in spite of all that had occurred, King Charles was maturing his plans for increasing the power of the Crown. But when he was only fifty-four years of age he was struck down by apoplexy, and after having confessed himself a Roman Catholic he passed away.

His brother quietly succeeded him—the last Stuart king to rule over these realms.

Chapter XXIV.

THE REVOLUTION.

JAMES THE SECOND, the last of the Stuart kings, wore the crown for the short period of three years. He lost it because, like his father, Charles the First, he placed himself in direct opposition to the steady movement of the nation towards the establishment of a form of government under which the people should govern themselves.



James II.

On his accession he promised to uphold the Protestant Church of England. But before long he began to take steps for setting aside the laws against Roman Catholics, which were very severe, and in our day would be considered intolerably unjust. The right way to set aside such laws was to get Parliament to repeal them; but that body was in no mood to do so, and, indeed, it would have been politically dangerous had these laws been repealed at that time.

The king then took the foolish course of acting as if these laws did not exist, and issued a Declaration of Indulgence, giving freedom of worship not only to Roman Catholics, but also to those Protestant bodies who did not worship according to the practice of the Church of England. This, of course, was in itself a just thing; but not even a king can do what he considers to be justice by setting aside the law.

The king ordered this Declaration of Indulgence to be read in all the churches. Seven bishops thereupon sent a petition to his Majesty begging him not to force them to do what they held to be illegal. The king, in great anger, sent them to the Tower, and before long they were brought to trial and charged with setting the people against the Government of the country. After long deliberation the jury returned a verdict of "Not guilty," and the result of the trial was received with almost frenzied joy by the people of London.



Costume, time of James II.

But even this did not convince King James of the folly of his plans. In order to overawe the country he sent to Ireland for soldiers who, being Roman Catholics, would be more likely to obey him. The birth of his son, James Edward, had alarmed the people, who did not wish to have another Catholic king. They therefore sent to Holland to ask William, Prince of Orange, the ruler of that country, to come and be King of Great Britain and Ireland. This prince was the son-in-law of King James, having married Mary, the daughter of that monarch; and he was the champion of the Protestant cause in Western Europe, as well as the determined foe of King Louis the Fourteenth of France.

He gladly responded to the call, chiefly because, as King of Great Britain and Ireland, he would be in a much stronger position to deal with his enemy the King of France. He quickly embarked, and in due time landed at Torbay with a considerable army. The people of the west country flocked to his support, and a march was begun towards London.

King James soon found that he could not rely upon the army on which he had centred all his hopes. In vain he strove to gain time by making arrangements with William. Then he tried to make his escape to the coast, in order to follow his wife and son, who had already been sent across to France; but he was stopped by a mob at a village in Kent, and forced



Officer, time of James II.



JAMES II. RECEIVING THE NEWS OF THE LANDING OF THE PRINCE OF ORANGE.
(From the painting by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)

to return to London. No one wished, however, to keep him a prisoner, and with the secret help of William himself he managed to make his escape. In due time he reached the court of King Louis, where he spent the greater part of the remaining twelve years of his life.

After the flight of James, William called a Convention—that is, a kind of Parliament brought together by one who is not as yet a sovereign—which declared that James by his flight had abdicated, and so had lost all right to the crown. To settle all disputes, the Convention drew up what was called a Declaration of Right, in which it was laid down:—

- (1) That without consent of Parliament the king could not levy taxes ;
- (2) That without consent of Parliament no standing army could be kept up in time of peace ;
- (3) That the king had no right to interfere with the election of members of Parliament ;
- (4) That any member of Parliament was to be allowed to speak freely on any subject ;
- (5) That the king could not make or unmake any laws without the consent of Parliament.

It was agreed that William and Mary should be king and queen, but that during the lifetime of Mary William should rule. If Mary died without children, the crown was to go to her sister Anne.

Thus, without bloodshed, was accomplished what is

known in our history as the Revolution. It was made quite clear that a king could not reign in this country unless he obeyed the laws of the land, and it was definitely settled that the ruling power was to be in the hands not of the king alone or of Parliament alone, but of both acting together. Many changes were afterwards made in the methods of government, for the ideal of the nation developed as the years passed on. But the great principle had now actually been settled—that the nation was to govern itself. This marks a decisive turning-point in our history, and forms a fitting close to this part of our story.

But though the Revolution was effected without bloodshed in England, there was fighting in Scotland and Ireland before the new order of things was accepted. In the former country the supporters of the exiled king, who came to be known as Jacobites (from *Jacobus*, the Latin form of James), were led by Viscount Dundee, formerly Graham of Claverhouse. Dundee met and defeated a party of King William's troops at the Pass of Killiecrankie, but was killed in the engagement, and the rebellion came to an end.

James now crossed over from France and landed in Ireland with a small French force. When he entered Dublin thousands flocked to his standard, and he was soon at the head of a large army. The town of Londonderry, in the north of Ireland, held out bravely for William. It was besieged by James's



Graham of Claverhouse.

*Officer, time of William.*

army for three months and ten days; a clergyman, the Rev. George Walker, leading the defence. The sufferings of the people were very great, as no ships could reach them with food. At length a boom placed across the River Foyle was forced by two English ships, and the town was relieved. Three days later the besieging army withdrew. In the following year William decisively defeated his rival in the Battle of the Boyne, and James fled once more to France.

*Officers of Marlborough's time.*

PART III.

THE EXPANSION OF THE NATION.

Chapter XXV.

A GLANCE BACKWARD.

LET us try, at this juncture, to make up our minds what is the chief subject of the third period of our national story. We have tried to trace in the first and second parts of this book (1) the founding and (2) the political settlement of the British nation. We have now to follow in the third part that great but unconscious movement which converted Britain into the British Empire.

The political troubles of the nation were not by any means ended when William the Third assumed the government of the country on the invitation of Parliament. Many important changes in the actual methods of government were still to be made before it could be truly said that the nation governed itself. Some of



Ladies, time of William and Mary.



FRANCIS DRAKE'S FAMOUS VESSEL, THE "GOLDEN HIND," ABOARD
OF WHICH QUEEN ELIZABETH KNIGHTED THE FIRST
ENGLISH CIRCUMNAVIGATOR.

these changes we shall note in subsequent chapters of this book.

Other great movements which concern the daily work of the people also belong to this third period of our history. As we shall see before long, the character of the industries of the country underwent a great change in the eighteenth century—a change so great, indeed, that it is often referred to as the Industrial Revolution. This we shall consider in its proper place.

But these matters of political and industrial development, important as they were, mainly concerned the home aspect of our history. The British nation was not destined to centre its energies upon merely keeping its own house in order. There were wider interests—world interests—which claimed the attention of our people, and one of the results of following these was the establishment of a world-wide empire.

The movement of expansion had begun before the Revolution. We have already noted the activity of British sailors, soldiers, and merchants across the seas, and we have seen how religious disputes also led to Britons leaving their old homes for new lands beyond the Atlantic Ocean. Let us then, before taking up the story, sum up what had been done before the time of William and Mary towards the founding of our colonial empire.

The “sea-dogs” of the time of Queen Elizabeth showed the way to the New World, and the defeat of



An Elizabethan sea-dog.

the Armada was a shrewd blow to the Spanish naval power which had persistently checked their enterprise. But no definite colony was founded in America during the reign of the Virgin Queen, though Raleigh, as we have seen, attempted to establish Virginia, and Sir Humphrey Gilbert tried to make a new home for Britons in the island of Newfoundland.

During the early years of the reign of James the First two companies of colonists went across the Atlantic, and after many vicissitudes the colony of Virginia was actually established on the Atlantic seaboard, with Jamestown as a centre. A little later the Pilgrim Fathers sailed in the *Mayflower* to found a "New England" across the ocean. During the troubled days of Charles the First a large number of colonists went out to those parts, and settlements were made farther inland. A colony was also planted in the island of Barbados during the reign of this monarch; and under the rule of Cromwell, Jamaica was added to our foreign possessions. Other emigrants, of various classes and for various reasons, crossed the Atlantic during the reigns of the later Stuarts, and in course of time British colonists occupied the whole of the Atlantic seaboard from Nova Scotia to Florida.

Meanwhile the French, on their part, had been engaged in the work of founding a "New France" in the lands which lay round the St. Lawrence River and the great lakes. It was a brave French soldier, Samuel



In the pillory.



THE OPENING SCENE IN THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES—SIGNING THE COMPACT
IN THE CABIN OF THE "MAYFLOWER."
(From the painting by Edwin White.)



Samuel Champlain.

Champlain, who founded the city of Quebec, and by making it the centre of a flourishing trade with the Indians of the North-West he earned for himself the proud title of the "Father of Canada."

At a later date the French king, Louis the Fourteenth, determined to build up a vast empire across the seas. Calmly ignoring all British rights and settlements, he granted to a French company the right to colonize America from Hudson Bay to the river Amazon, "by killing or conquering the natives or colonists of such European nations as are not our allies."

This company set to work to explore the unknown regions of the Mississippi, and in due time planted a colony near the mouth of that river, which was called Louisiana, after the French king. The next step was to connect this new settlement with the original settlements on the St. Lawrence River by means of a chain of forts. The British colonists nearer the seaboard watched these events with alarm, and it was soon evident that a fierce struggle was impending between France and Britain for the possession of the New World. We shall trace the course of this great struggle in subsequent chapters of this book.

Meanwhile France and Britain had become rivals in another distant part of the world—namely, in India. The Portuguese, as we have seen, led the way to this wealthy country; but before long they were faced by the rivalry of Dutch and British merchants, eager to



The Lords and Commons presenting the Crown to William and Mary in the Banqueting Hall.

(From the fresco by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Palace of Westminster.)

win a share in the rich trade of the peninsula. In the reign of Elizabeth a charter was granted to a corporation of English merchants known as the East India Company, permitting them to enjoy a monopoly of trade with the East, and a "factory," or trading-centre, was established at Surat. This was our first foothold upon the great peninsula which was, in process of time, to become one of the most important parts of our empire.

As time went on the East India Company began to set up other factories at various places along the coast, on pieces of land bought for this purpose from Indian rulers. In this manner were established the trading-centres of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, though the original settlements did not bear these names. But at this early time the Company had no notion of making conquests or acquiring territory in India.



Corvette, beginning of eighteenth century.

France, then, was our greatest rival both in America and in India. William the Third, as we have seen, was the determined enemy of France, and his accession meant, among many other things, that we should be ready to oppose the evident design of that nation to restrict our expansion in lands beyond the sea. We must keep this clearly before our minds when we come to read of the French wars which took place at this time and for many years later.

Chapter XXVI.

THE TIME OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

WHILE King William was in Ireland a splendid French fleet appeared in the English Channel, and was met by a combined fleet of British and Dutch ships. The latter were routed, while the British admiral was forced to retreat and take refuge in the Thames estuary. The French admiral was also able to land some of his men on the south coast of England.

This reverse, bitter though it was, had a beneficial effect upon the country. It strengthened the position of the new sovereign. He was a stranger and personally unpopular, but the people felt that it was better to support him than to see England overrun by French troops acting in support of James Stuart, the exiled king.

It was not long before the naval disgrace was effectively wiped out. The French made further preparations to invade England, while James hoped that Russell, the English admiral, who was a Jacobite, would not oppose their landing. But even Russell did not wish to restore James to his throne at the cost of a French invasion. "If I meet the French ships I fight them," he said—"ay, even though King James himself should be on board."

He did indeed meet the French off Cape La Hogue,

and with the aid of the Dutch was able to inflict upon them a crushing defeat. This was the most glorious victory which had been won by our sailors since the time of Queen Elizabeth.

William the Third was now firmly established on his throne, but he had little real interest in British affairs. His chief aim was to check the ambitious schemes of Louis the Fourteenth, and he was ready to make many concessions to his new subjects in return for large grants of money by means of which he might carry on his European campaigns. The English Parliament was not slow to see its advantage. Many of our national liberties have been won, as we have seen, by the blood of our forefathers; others, as we have also seen, have been bought with their money.

We must not forget, too, that any check administered by William the Third to the schemes of Louis the Fourteenth was a help towards the extension of our empire overseas. For, as we must never forget, the French were at the time our determined rivals both in North America and in India; and by crippling them at home William was able to check their enterprise abroad.

Yet William did not win any great and decisive victories over the French king. Again and again he crossed the seas to place himself at the head of the princes who were leagued together against Louis.



Louis XIV.

He was often defeated, though he usually managed to be defeated in such a manner that his opponents derived very little advantage from their victories. After a while, however, his patience was rewarded, and he forced King Louis to make peace and to acknowledge him as King of Great Britain and Ireland.

But the peace did not last long. The King of Spain died, and left his throne to the grandson of Louis of France. This would have led to the ultimate union of these two powerful kingdoms, and no other country of Western Europe would then have been strong enough to stand against them. So King William formed a league to resist the union of Spain with France. This led to a great European struggle known as the War of the Spanish Succession, which had a great deal to do with the history of our empire, as we shall see in our next chapter.

Queen Mary died only five years after her arrival in England, and after that William ruled alone. He was never happy while in England. In disposition he was quiet and unsociable, and as he, quite naturally, favoured his Dutch friends, this made him very unpopular among his new subjects. His position must indeed have been most trying. There was scarcely a man he could trust, for many of the prominent men of his court were known to favour secretly the "king over the water." Several plots were formed against his



GLENCOE.

(From the painting by J. B. M'Donald, in the National Gallery of Scotland. By permission of the Royal Scottish Academy.)

The Macdonalds of Glencoe did not submit to King William till just after the day fixed for taking the oath of allegiance. The Master of Stair, then Secretary of State for Scotland, had a private grudge against the Macdonalds, and persuaded William to let him punish the clan. Some soldiers were therefore sent to Glencoe, who, after being hospitably entertained by the Macdonalds, suddenly turned upon their hosts in the night, and murdered the greater number of them (February 1692). The "Massacre of Glencoe," as this cruel and treacherous deed was called, has ever since blackened the memory of William III.

life, and once he made up his mind to go back to Holland ; but he abandoned this idea and stuck to his post. He survived his queen only eight years. One day while out riding he was thrown from his horse, and was so badly injured that he died a fortnight later. After his death the crown passed to his sister-in-law, Anne, the younger daughter of the exiled king, who was a Protestant.

The Revolution had made several great changes in our methods of government, of which we must take note. The House of Commons was now the chief governing power. At first it did not know how to use its power, but the most workable plan was found to be that the actual governing power should be in the hands of the leaders of that party which was more powerful in numbers, or, as we say, "in the majority."

Sometimes there was a majority of Whigs—that is, those who were determined that no Roman Catholic should occupy the throne, and were ready to make changes in the government for the good of the nation ; sometimes of Tories—that is, those who wanted to preserve the old forms of government, and wished for the return of the Stuarts.

The king came to choose his ministers from the majority, because they alone were able to get the consent of the House to the measures proposed by the Government. The chief ministers working together to introduce these measures formed what came

to be afterwards called the Cabinet, which was at first presided over by the king, but later by one of the ministers, called the Prime Minister. This was the beginning of party government, such as we have at the present day.

King William's ministers were sometimes Whigs and sometimes Tories ; but on the whole he favoured the Whigs, for they were most interested in those affairs on the Continent which occupied almost all his thoughts, as well as most anxious to prevent the return of the Stuarts to the throne.



Chapter XXVII.

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

BETWEEN the death of William the Third and the battle of Waterloo—that is, during a period of about one hundred years—Britain was engaged in no less than six great wars. When we read the accounts of these struggles, we get a very confused idea as to the object of all the fighting. Britain appears to have fought against one country after another, with varying fortune, and at first it is difficult to see any connection between the various wars.

The names and dates of these six important contests are as follows :—

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION. 189

The War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-1713.

The War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748.

The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.

The War of American Independence, 1775-1783.

The War with Revolutionary France, 1793-1802.

The Napoleonic War, 1803-1815.

If we examine these dates, we shall see that the eighteenth century was almost wholly occupied with fighting, the longest interval of peace being that between the first and second of the wars named above. The titles given in history to these wars give us no clue to the great continuous motive underlying all the fighting. It is only when we examine the causes, events, and effects of each great contest that we see them as parts of one connected whole.

We shall see as we go on with our story that Britain fought for two chief objects—(1) to establish her position as a power in Europe, and (2) to found an empire overseas. When the struggle began she found (1) that her neighbour France was the dominating power in Europe, and (2) that France had already made great headway in North America and in India as a colonizing and trading nation. Britain was therefore forced into a long and bitter struggle with France in the effort to attain her great national aims.

Throughout these six contests, then, we shall find that the chief enemy of Britain was France, and the chief prize in the long-continued struggle the pos-



Costume, time of Anne.



THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

(From a print after Benjamin West, P.R.A. By permission of Messrs. Henry Graves and Co.)

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION. 191

session of territories far removed from the continent of Europe. This gives us the key to the complicated puzzle, and simplifies our task of studying the separate events in our history during the eighteenth century.

Let us now try to understand the causes and effects of the first in our list of great wars given above—namely, the War of the Spanish Succession. As its name indicates, its immediate cause was a dispute about the succession to the throne of Spain.

In the year 1700, Charles the Second of Spain, when on his deathbed, named as his successor Philip of Anjou, the grandson of King Louis the Fourteenth of France. This prince thus became the ruler not only of Spain, the southern portion of Italy, and the Spanish Netherlands, but also of wide territories in the New World; and his close connection with the French royal house helped to place King Louis in a position of very great power indeed. "The Pyrenees exist no longer," the French monarch is reported to have said when his grandson became King of Spain.

Now, King William the Third had worked hard in the last years of his life to prevent the union of France and Spain by banding together certain of the states of Europe against King Louis. Shortly after his death his plans for concerted action were carried out, and Britain formed with Austria and Holland a league against France and Spain.

Fighting began, and was carried on in various parts

*Marlborough.*

of Europe. The allied troops were fortunate in their leaders, Prince Eugene of Savoy and John Churchill, the English general, who for his services in this war was made Duke of Marlborough; and these two great generals fought side by side in the engagement which proved to be the turning-point in the war, the great battle of Blenheim.

In the year 1704 King Louis sent an army into Bavaria. Marlborough marched up the Rhine valley from the Netherlands, where most of his previous fighting had been done, and was joined by Prince Eugene. Near the village of Blenheim on the Danube a great battle was fought, in which the French suffered a crushing defeat. This blow saved Austria from a French invasion. The whole of Bavaria fell into Marlborough's hands, and the French retired behind the Rhine.

Meanwhile a British fleet under Admiral Rooke had been sent to Spain to carry on the war in that quarter. The ships were repulsed at Barcelona, but on the return voyage Rooke landed a force on the Rock of Gibraltar, and taking the Spanish garrison by surprise, obtained possession of the fortress, which has remained since that time in British hands.

The war continued with varying fortune for nearly two years, and then by a series of victories, including the occupation of Madrid by an English force and Marlborough's triumph at Ramillies, the allies at last

*Gibraltar.*



THE BRITISH ASSAULT ON THE VILLAGE OF BLENHEIM.
(From the picture by Allan Stewart, specially painted for this series.)

forced the French king to sue for peace. He offered to give up Spain, the Spanish Netherlands, and the West Indies, but the allies refused the offer; consequently the war began again.



Austrian soldiers, time of Marlborough.

In 1708 Marlborough and Prince Eugene won a great victory over the French at Oudenarde, and took Lille, on the French frontier. In the same year the British captured Minorca. The following year saw another of Marlborough's successes, that at Malplaquet, near the French frontier—a victory which was, however, bought with fearful loss of human life.

By this time the British people were weary of the war, and many of them were beginning to fear that Marlborough was becoming too powerful. Moreover, the tide of success had turned, and the Spaniards had almost succeeded in driving the allies out of their country. Queen Anne's ministers advised her to make peace, and in 1713 a treaty was signed by the combatants. We must note carefully the terms of this arrangement, which is known in history as the Treaty of Utrecht.

It was agreed that Philip was to remain King of Spain and the Indies, but the rest of the Spanish dominions in Europe were to be handed over to Austria. Britain was not only to keep Gibraltar and Minorca, the most important Mediterranean stations on the road to India, but to obtain from France Newfoundland, Acadia (now known as Nova Scotia),

and the territories round Hudson Bay. Spain gave up her monopoly of trade in South America, and later allowed the British to share in the slave trade—a privilege in which we afterwards took little pride.

Thus we see that our gains at the end of this war were empire gains, and that the Treaty of Utrecht gave us a decided advantage over our chief rival in the race for empire—the kingdom of France.



Chapter XXVIII.

THE UNION WITH SCOTLAND.

WHILE the War of the Spanish Succession was going on, an important change was made in the relations between England and Scotland. Since the time when James the Sixth of Scotland had become also King of England, the two sister kingdoms had, it is true, been under one monarch; but in other respects they were separate and distinct. Scotland had her own Church and laws, as well as her own national life and customs, and she had no share in England's trade with the colonies.

In the beginning of the reign of Queen Anne steps were taken to bring about a closer union between the sister kingdoms. There was much discussion among the leading men of both countries, and no small amount



St. Andrew's Cross
SCOTLAND



St. George's Cross
ENGLAND



St. Patrick's Cross
IRELAND



UNION JACK

of ill feeling was shown on either side before the question was finally decided.

A Treaty of Union was proposed, with the following conditions: (1) that the Scots should keep their own church and system of laws, (2) that equal trading rights should be enjoyed by both countries, and (3) that the separate Scottish Parliament should come to an end and a British Parliament be established in which both kingdoms should be represented.

When these proposals were laid before the Scottish Parliament they raised a storm of opposition. The adverse feeling throughout the northern kingdom was strong, and for a time it seemed as if there was to be no settlement. But after a time the proposals were agreed to, and Queen Anne gave her assent. "I desire," she said, "and expect from my subjects of both nations, that from henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world that they have hearts disposed to become one people."

This important change, which has proved of immense advantage to both nations, was for some time greatly disliked by the Scottish people, and was indeed one of the causes of a movement which took place in the year 1715, eight years after the proclamation of the Union.

Queen Anne died in 1714, and was succeeded by a German prince, George, Elector of Hanover, who was



Domestic costume, early eighteenth century.

great-grandson of James the First of England, and a Protestant. But we must not forget that there was living in France at this time the son of the dethroned King James the Second, who was known in England as the Pretender, and in Scotland as the Chevalier; and his friends were continually watching for an opportunity to place him on the throne of his fathers.

The supporters of James Stuart had hoped, and indeed had planned, to secure the throne for him on the death of Queen Anne. But when the critical moment arrived their plans were incomplete, and George the First quietly succeeded. There were not many people in England who were really anxious to bring back the Stuarts.

There were many, however, in Scotland who were prepared to fight for the Chevalier, and these Jacobites, as they were called, raised a rebellion in his favour. Taking advantage of the prevailing discontent in Scotland after the Union, they commenced operations in that country. In 1715 the Earl of Mar placed himself at the head of six thousand Highlanders, and an indecisive battle was fought at Sheriffmuir; as the old poem puts it,—

“ We ran and they ran,
And they ran and we ran,
And we ran, and they ran awa', man.”

The Jacobite advance was checked, and many of the Highlanders went off to their homes. When it was too

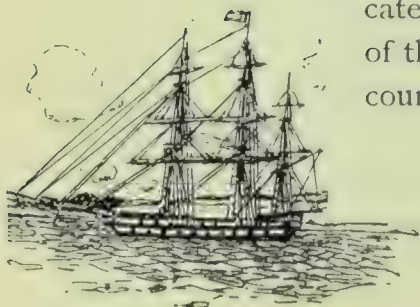


Earl of Mar.

late James himself came to Scotland. He was not the leader to inspire his followers with hope and courage. He was gloomy and taciturn, and even, upon occasion, gave way to tears. After staying six weeks in the country he went back to France, taking with him the leaders of his army and leaving his faithful Highlanders to shift for themselves. A simultaneous rising in the north of England under a Mr. Forster and the Earl of Derwentwater had no better fortune, and the little force surrendered to the Government troops at Preston.

The easy suppression of this revolt reminds us that the nation as a whole was no longer concerned in the fortunes of the Stuart family. Now that the succession to the throne had been settled and there was internal peace, Britain was taking, step by step, an important place among the nations of Europe. Her oversea trade was increasing, her wealth was accumulating, and her empire was growing. The heart of the nation was set upon other aims than the restoration to the throne of a family with such a record as that of the Stuarts.

It is true that George the First was not popular. He did not like England or the English, and was never so happy as when he could escape to Hanover. He could not speak a word of English, and communicated with his ministers in Latin. The consequence of this was that these ministers really governed the country; and it was at this time that one of them



Man-of-war, middle of eighteenth century.

came to take the lead in the work of government, and became known as the Prime Minister.

The first Prime Minister was Sir Robert Walpole, who may be said to have actually ruled the country from 1721 to 1742. He was by no means a perfect character, and in his management of other men he often resorted to bribery. But he maintained peace at home and abroad, thus giving the nation an opportunity to recover from her wars, and, as we shall see, to prepare for further advances along the path of empire. And he encouraged not only colonial trade, but British manufactures as well. On the whole, his term of office, though not a heroic period, was a time of solid growth and steady advance for the British nation and the British Empire.



A picnic, middle of eighteenth century.



A Royal Fugitive.

(From the painting by Allan Stewart.)

Picture Charles Edward Stuart in high mountain of Ben.

Chapter XXIX.

THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN
SUCCESSION.

THE royal houses of France and Spain were closely related, as we have seen, both belonging to the Bourbon family. About twenty years after the Peace of Utrecht they entered into a secret arrangement, by which Spain not only granted to France important trading privileges in America, but also agreed to assist her ally in checking British enterprise in that part of the world.

Now the trade with Spain and her oversea colonies had been for twenty years largely in British hands, and great profits had been derived from it. This trade now passed into the hands of France, and the Spaniards began to insist upon the right of searching British ships on the high seas, to prevent what they now regarded as smuggling. This naturally caused much irritation in Britain, and in 1739 Walpole was forced, though sorely against his will, to declare war against Spain.

At the same time we were upon the eve of another great struggle, known as the War of the Austrian Succession, which was in the first place a quarrel caused by the refusal of some of the European rulers to recognize the right of Maria Theresa to the throne

of Austria. During the quarrel the King of Prussia seized the province of Silesia. Britain took the side of Maria Theresa, while France and Spain supported Prussia; and once more fighting began in various parts of Europe as well as in America and India.

For the theatre of war was now greatly extended. Britain, as we have seen again and again, was really fighting an empire battle. As the historian Macaulay says: "In order that Frederick of Prussia might rob a neighbour whom he had promised to defend, black men fought on the coast of Coromandel; and red men scalped each other by the great lakes of North America." This sounds very unreasonable, but it is readily understood when we remember the real object of Britain at this time—to establish an oversea empire which would give scope to her increasing trade, and provide a make-weight against the continental power of France.

British troops were sent to Germany in 1743, and joined a Hanoverian army on the Main. At Dettingen the French were defeated, King George the Second of England being present at the battle. Two years later British and French met at Fontenoy, and the latter were victorious. Meanwhile the French had been making an attempt to strike a blow at Britain nearer home.

The Chevalier, for whose sake the Jacobites rose in 1715, had entrusted his cause to his son, Charles



Prince Charles.



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN THE DAYS OF WALPOLE, WHO APPEARS IN THE
LEFT FOREGROUND OF THE PICTURE.



A Highlander of the '45.

Edward Stuart, who is known in history as the "Young Pretender," and in song and story as the "Young Chevalier" and "Bonnie Prince Charlie." Encouraged by promises of French aid, which were never fulfilled, he landed in Scotland in the summer of 1745, and, gathering a Highland force, marched on Edinburgh, where he received a warm welcome from many of the inhabitants.

An army under General Cope, while advancing from Dunbar, was met and routed by Charles Edward at Prestonpans. Flushed with success, and relying on the English Jacobites for support, he determined to advance into England. Having crossed the Border at Carlisle, he marched by way of Lancaster, Preston, and Manchester to Derby. The news of his advance created a panic in London, and King George was ready to forsake his kingdom for Hanover.

But the English people did not rise in Charles's favour. The royal troops marched northward, and the friends of the Young Pretender thought it wise to retire, greatly to the disgust of their leader. In the course of their retreat the Jacobites won another battle at Falkirk, but they were followed up by the Duke of Cumberland, and finally defeated at Culloden Moor. Charles Edward became a fugitive, and had many stirring adventures before he could make his escape and return to the country which had used him as a tool in the great world struggle with Britain.

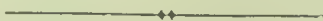
Meanwhile the war on the Continent had been dragging on. Silesia became part of the dominions of the Prussian king, who, by his skilful generalship and statesmanship, proved himself one of the most capable as well as unscrupulous of monarchs, and is commonly known as Frederick the Great. Britain had several naval successes, and entered upon that career which won for her the proud title of "Mistress of the Seas," and ensured the establishment and maintenance of an oversea empire.

The two most noted naval commanders of the time were Anson and Hawke. The former sailed to attack the Spanish ports on the Pacific seaboard of South America. On the way he captured a great galleon containing the yearly output of the silver mines of Mexico. Like Drake, he returned to Europe by the Cape route, and thus circumnavigated the globe. Hawke won his first great victory in 1747 over the French fleet off Finisterre, and later, as we shall see, achieved other brilliant successes.

Meanwhile fighting between French and British had been going on both in North America and in India. In the former country the British colonists took Cape Breton Island from the French. In India, on the other hand, the French took Madras from the British, and had it not been for a disagreement between their leaders, they might have succeeded in driving the British traders from Southern India. The French

leader was Dupleix, a man of whom we shall read in our next chapter.

So the great world struggle went on, until both nations were worn out and peace was concluded by a treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle. Cape Breton Island was exchanged for Madras, so that this war did not enlarge our territories; but, as we have seen, we had won the first place on the sea, without which it would have been impossible for us to establish an empire at all. France emerged from the war without any gain of territory, and considerably weakened by the enormous drain upon her resources of men and money. So ended the second of the great struggles on our path of empire.



Chapter XXX.

THE TIME OF NOMINAL TRUCE.

THE agreement known as the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was observed for about eight years; and though in Europe there was peace between Great Britain and France during this period, in America and India the struggle still went on.

In North America the British colonies along the Atlantic seaboard were in danger of being hemmed in by the French, who held all Canada, and had set



"BONNIE PRINCE CHARLIE."

(From the painting by John Pettie, R.A., in the National Gallery of Scotland.)

up a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, which they called Louisiana. They had also explored the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi, and claimed all the land west of the Alleghanies.



*Colonel George Washington
of the Virginia Militia.*

This claim was hotly disputed by the British colonists, and when the French began to establish forts in the disputed territory they prepared for armed resistance. A new French governor, named Duquesne, proposed to build a fort on the upper Ohio, which was to be named after himself. This roused the British governor of Virginia to action, and he sent off a young militia officer named George Washington to drive the French from the position.

Washington destroyed a French force which he discovered lying in ambush, but reinforcements came from Canada which compelled him to surrender, on condition that his men should be allowed to return to their homes. So ended the first military expedition of the man who was destined to become the first president of the United States of America.



General Braddock.

Fort Duquesne was built, and in the following year a force of British regulars under General Braddock was sent out to capture it. But the leader blundered into an ambuscade in the woods, his men were shot down by the French and their Indian allies, and he was carried from the field mortally wounded.

Meanwhile Acadia having become a British possession, steps were taken to ensure the future

obedience of the province. Those French settlers who refused to take the oath of allegiance to King George were removed from their homes, and most of them were distributed among the British colonies. The work of removal, undertaken not by the Home but by the Colonial Government, was performed with unnecessary harshness, but the refusal of the settlers to take the oath made this stern measure absolutely necessary. This event forms the subject of Longfellow's well-known poem "Evangeline."

So passed the time of "peace" in America. In India, French and British had also been engaged in a trial of strength. We have already mentioned Dupleix, the French leader, who was a man of great ability, though not a professional soldier—the noise of guns, he said, disarranged his thoughts. He was especially skilful in managing the native princes, and by his schemes contrived to gain control over the greater part of Southern India.

In the south-eastern portion of the peninsula, known as the Carnatic, civil war was going on, and the native prince who had the support of Dupleix was on the point of triumphing over his rival. This would have made French influence supreme in the Carnatic; but the situation was saved by Robert Clive, formerly a young clerk in the employment of the British East India Company.

Clive was a young man of twenty-five when he

forsook the work of a clerk for that of a soldier, and he soon made a reputation for daring, coolness, and initiative. The French and their native allies were besieging Trichinopoli, the last stronghold of the leader favoured by the British. Clive then suggested that in order to create a diversion an attack should be made upon Arcot, not far from Madras.

He was placed at the head of two hundred British and three hundred Sepoy troops, and sent to make the attempt. As he drew near Arcot a violent thunderstorm came on; but the young commander pushed bravely forward, the native garrison forsook the town on his approach, and Clive took possession.

His success was perhaps greater than he expected. Trichinopoli was not only relieved, but the besieging force was immediately transferred to Arcot. The fort was heavily bombarded, and after a short time Clive's men were reduced to great straits for want of food.

Hearing of the approach of a native army coming to the relief of the British, the besiegers made one more desperate attempt to storm the town; but Clive beat them off, and during the following night they raised the siege. This heroic defence and a subsequent victory turned the tide against Dupleix, who was recalled to France in 1754, and was succeeded by another official, who at once made peace with the British.

Such were the chief events that had been happening in India during the period of "peace" between Britain and France. The time had now come when the pretence of truce could no longer be maintained.

Chapter XXXI.

PITT, WOLFE, AND CLIVE.



Quebec.

WE saw in chapter xxix. that Frederick of Prussia seized the province of Silesia from Maria Theresa of Austria. For the moment this proud princess had to bow to the Prussian aggression, but she kept the recovery of the province steadily in view. In 1755 she succeeded in persuading France to join with her against Prussia, and another European struggle began which is known in history as the Seven Years' War.

France was soon engrossed in the struggle with Prussia, and this presented to Britain an opportunity which she was not slow to seize. At this time the most prominent British statesman was William Pitt, who had clearly recognized the fact that Britain must become a strong colonial power.

He saw that our chief rival was France, and that in America as well as in India we must reckon with that country. He therefore took advantage of the opportunity to help her enemy, Prussia, and so to

keep the best of her armies fully occupied in Europe. Britain consequently became the ally of Prussia, but only a small army was sent to Frederick's assistance. Pitt supplied that monarch with money instead of men, while his country's real strength was thrown into the war upon the seas, in America, and in India. Pitt's plan was, to use his own phrase, "to conquer America on the banks of the Elbe."

When this great statesman came into power the fortunes of Britain were at a very low ebb. The French had, on the whole, got the better of us in America, as we have seen. At the beginning of the war they succeeded in taking Minorca, and so crippling our power in the Mediterranean. In India, too, they appeared to be triumphant, in spite of the effect of Clive's excellent work in the southern portion of the peninsula.



Robert Lord Clive.

The French had lent their aid to the native prince Suraj-ud-Dowlah in an attack made upon the British settlement at Calcutta. The property of the Company was seized, and a party of one hundred and forty-six British prisoners were shut up in a small room some eighteen feet square, known afterwards as the Black Hole of Calcutta. After a night of agony in this prison, only twenty-three persons remained alive.

Britain required at this juncture a leader of insight, decision, and faith, and she found what she needed in William Pitt. He had the faculty of selecting the



THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.

ablest and most devoted commanders for the army and the navy, and he inspired all about him with his own ardent and unselfish patriotism. Before much time had elapsed, defeat was everywhere turned into victory.

Plans were made for a concerted attack upon the various French colonies in North America. Washington was successful in capturing Fort Duquesne. General Wolfe took the fortified town of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, and then advanced on Quebec, the strongest fortress in Canada, which was built on a lofty promontory overlooking the river St. Lawrence.

When he reached the neighbourhood of this city, Wolfe found the French troops under General Montcalm occupying a strong position to the east of the place. Having encamped his own men on the Isle of Orleans (see map), he awaited his opportunity to carry out Pitt's laconic order to "take Quebec."

Several attempts were made to break through the strong defences of the place, but without success. Then Wolfe determined to land a force at the foot of the steep cliff to the west of the city, and to scale what were known as the Heights of Abraham. This was done under cover of darkness, with the assistance of the British fleet, and by daybreak a force of four thousand men was ranged in order of battle on the top of the heights.

The few French sentries placed to guard the cliffs had taken to their heels when they saw the British soldiers. The news was carried to Montcalm, who hurried out to engage the enemy. Bravely he led his troops to the attack; but Wolfe's line stood immovable till they were at close quarters, delivered two crashing volleys, and then charged.

The rout of the French was complete. Montcalm, fatally wounded, was carried into Quebec. Cannon, camp, provisions, and fortress were left to the victorious British. Wolfe also had received a mortal wound, and died on the field of battle; but he had carried out Pitt's order to "take Quebec."

Canada, however, was not yet won. The British army was soon shut up within the walls of Quebec by a strong French force, until, during the next year, a British squadron sailed up the St. Lawrence and raised the siege. The French retired to Montreal, upon which a threefold advance was now made. The city fell without a blow, and French rule in Canada was over.

So much for the success of Pitt's schemes in America. Meanwhile British and French had been carrying on the war in India. In 1757 Clive came to Bengal to avenge the horrors of the Black Hole and to recover Calcutta. He met the army of Suraj-ud-Dowlah, some thirty-five thousand strong, on the field of Plassey, his own force numbering only three thousand men, of whom about a third were Europeans. In



The death of Wolfe.

spite of the odds against him, he won a great victory, which he followed up by driving the Dutch also from their settlements in Bengal, and thus completely established the British power in that rich province of India.

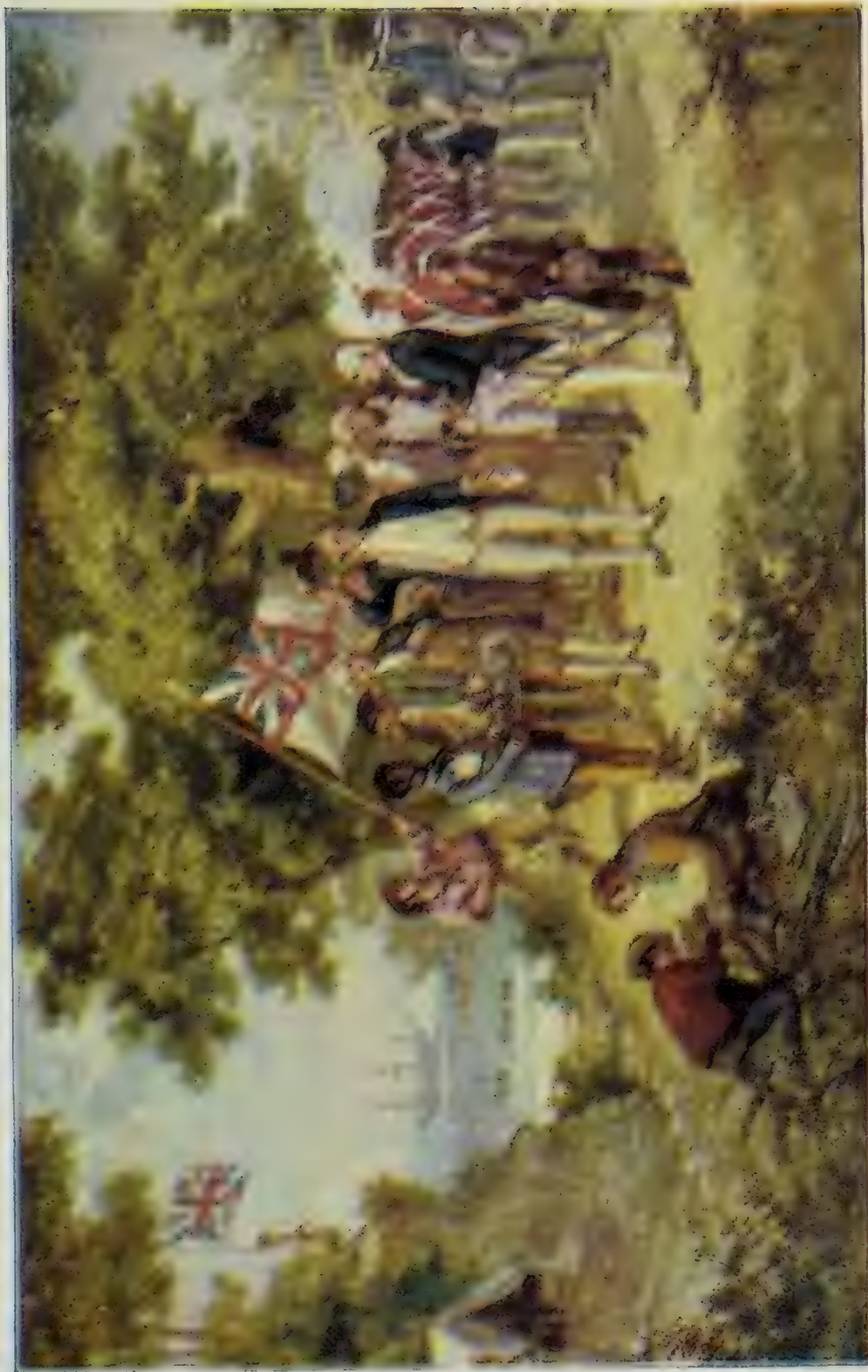
In the southern portion of the peninsula Sir Eyre Coote fought and won the decisive battle of Wandewash. Then Pondicherry, the chief French settlement, fell into British hands, and within a short time the French power in India had been absolutely crushed.

Nearer home the British fleet also rendered excellent service. In 1759 the French made preparations for invading England; but one of their squadrons was beaten and scattered off the southern coast of Spain, and Admiral Hawke defeated another in Quiberon Bay, on the west coast of France. In this engagement Hawke followed the French into the bay, which was full of rocks and shoals, in a heavy gale of wind, and captured or drove ashore most of the enemy's ships. Thus, not only were the plans of France utterly frustrated, but she was prevented from sending further assistance to her colonies in America and India. So the work designed and inspired by Pitt went victoriously on.

In 1763 the war was ended by the Peace of Paris. Britain restored some important conquests, but she retained Canada and all the land formerly in dispute from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, as well as



A warship of the period.



Captain Cook taking Possession of New South Wales in the Name of King George.
Botany Bay, 1770.

(From the painting by T. A. Gilfillan.)

the province of Acadia. India became British so far as French acknowledgment of her supremacy could make it so. The naval power of Spain and France had been overthrown, and from this time the ocean became the great British highroad of empire.

Chapter XXXII.

THE VOYAGES OF CAPTAIN COOK.



*A naval captain,
second half of eight-
eenth century.*

AMONG the British war-vessels sent to help General Wolfe in his attack on Quebec was H.M.S. *Mercury*, in which the navigating officer was a young man named James Cook. During the operations before the city Cook won the high approval of his superiors by making a chart for the guidance of the fleet. He was, in consequence, promoted to the rank of lieutenant, and was afterwards selected to take command of a scientific expedition to the Pacific island of Tahiti, to be followed by a voyage of discovery in the Southern Seas.

For a long time it had been thought that there lay in the South Polar Regions a great continent, which was usually spoken of as the Great South Land; and many attempts had been made to find it. The Portuguese, the Dutch, and the Spaniards had made several voyages to this part of the globe, but

their explorations were for the most part confined to the archipelago which lies between Australia and South-eastern Asia, where they made a number of trading settlements.

In 1642, however, a Dutch captain named Tasman sailed as far as the island now known as Tasmania, and thence to New Zealand. About the time of the Revolution, nearly half a century later, an Englishman named William Dampier set foot on Australian shores ; but he was not favourably impressed with the land, and after coasting along Western Australia for nearly a thousand miles without finding much evidence of fertility, he sailed away to the East Indies.

Certain people in Britain, however, had not given up the idea of finding a new world in the Southern Seas, and they still had dreams of the mysterious Great South Land, which they said "balanced Asia as Africa balanced Europe." And when Captain James Cook set out on the *Endeavour* in 1768, great hopes were entertained that he would discover a new continent.

After a voyage of seven months Cook reached the island of Tahiti, where certain astronomical observations were made ; and there he rested his men before setting out for uncharted seas. Then he sailed away to the southward, and after a voyage of several weeks landed upon the North Island of New Zealand. Here he encountered a band of Maoris, who were at first inclined to be hostile, but afterwards became friendly.



A Maori.

Having sailed completely round North Island, the *Endeavour* was run into Queen Charlotte Sound, on the north coast of South Island. Here Cook landed, hoisted the British flag, and formally took possession of the country in the name of King George the Third.

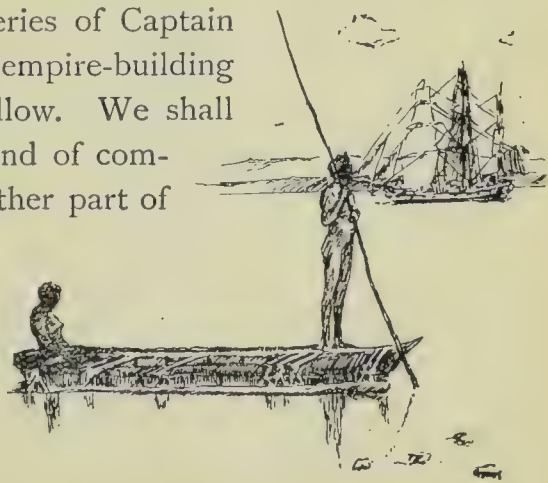
Once again he set sail, and after a voyage of nearly three weeks sighted the coast of Australia. Keeping within sight of land, he sailed on in a northerly direction, landing occasionally to survey the country for a short distance. There were natives here too—short, stunted people, not far removed from wild beasts, and differing greatly from the athletic warriors of Maoriland.

At one opening in the coast where he landed Cook found such a profusion of plants that he named the place Botany Bay. A few of his men went inland, and returned with the report that on the banks of the river which flows into the bay there was excellent pasture for cattle.

Proceeding steadily to the northward, sometimes in great danger from the coral reefs off the coast, Cook at last rounded Cape York, and became quite convinced that he had now reached the northern extremity of a huge island, and would find a clear passage between it and New Guinea. In this he was right, as we now know. On August 21, 1770, he landed on one of the islands in Torres Strait, and took possession of the new territory he had explored, giving it the name of New South Wales.

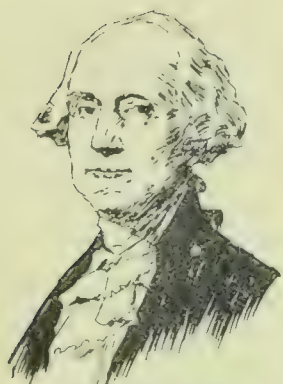
When he reached home, the report of his discoveries made a great stir; but the scientists were not yet convinced that the Great South Land did not exist. So Cook went out again and spent a considerable time in searching the waters to the south and east of Australia. Yet all was in vain, and he came to the conclusion that if there was indeed a great continent in the region of the South Pole, it must be useless for man's habitation. The "Great South Land" was Australia, and this continent he had the unique honour of adding to our empire.

The people at home were in no great hurry to found new colonies in the countries of which Cook had brought such excellent reports, for at the time they were engaged in the great and momentous struggle with the colonists of North America, the story of which we shall read in our next chapter. And when we have read this story we shall be able to trace some connection between the discoveries of Captain Cook and the general movement of empire-building which we are at present trying to follow. We shall see that the gain of Australia was a kind of compensation for a very heavy loss in another part of the world.



In unknown seas—Captain Cook's ship

Chapter XXXIII.

THE WAR OF AMERICAN
INDEPENDENCE.*George Washington.*

ONLY seventeen years after Wolfe's great victory at Quebec, Britain lost all that portion of her colonial territory which lay to the south of the great lakes of North America, and a new country came into being—the United States of America. How this came about we are now to learn.

The victories of Wolfe and his colleagues had relieved the British colonists in America from any fear of France and Spain; and as soon as they were freed from this outside danger they began to realize that they had several grievances against the mother country.

The colonists were not allowed by the home authorities to export certain of their produce—such as tobacco and coffee—to any country but Great Britain. They were forbidden to trade with the colonies of France and Spain in other parts of America, and they were not allowed to buy tea from any but British dealers.

To evade these laws a great deal of illicit trading, or smuggling, was carried on. For some time this evasion of the law was disregarded by the Home Government, but in 1763 steps began to be taken

to enforce obedience, and there arose considerable friction between Britain and her American colonies.

There were, moreover, other matters in dispute. A British army was maintained in America for the protection of the colonies. This the colonists declared to be unnecessary, and they strongly objected to the troops being quartered upon them. Further, the British Parliament claimed the right to tax the colonists in order to help to pay for the war which was just ended. The colonists maintained that as they were not represented in the British Parliament that body had no right to tax them.

In 1767 the Home Government placed duties on tea and certain other articles imported into America. This greatly enraged the colonists, who held angry meetings of protest, and formed an association pledged to buy no British goods. The meetings were declared to be seditious, and troops were brought into Boston. A riot took place, in which life was lost ; and the Home Government removed the duties from certain articles, but left the tax on tea. This did not secure peace, for the colonists were fighting for a principle, and their rallying cry was, "No taxation without representation."

Time went on, but the angry feelings did not die. In 1773 certain citizens of Boston, disguised as Red Indians, boarded some tea-ships in the harbour, and threw the cargoes into the sea. The Home Government then declared Boston Harbour closed to com-



*British soldier, time of
American war.*

merce, in spite of the protests of Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, and before long the disputants had become combatants.

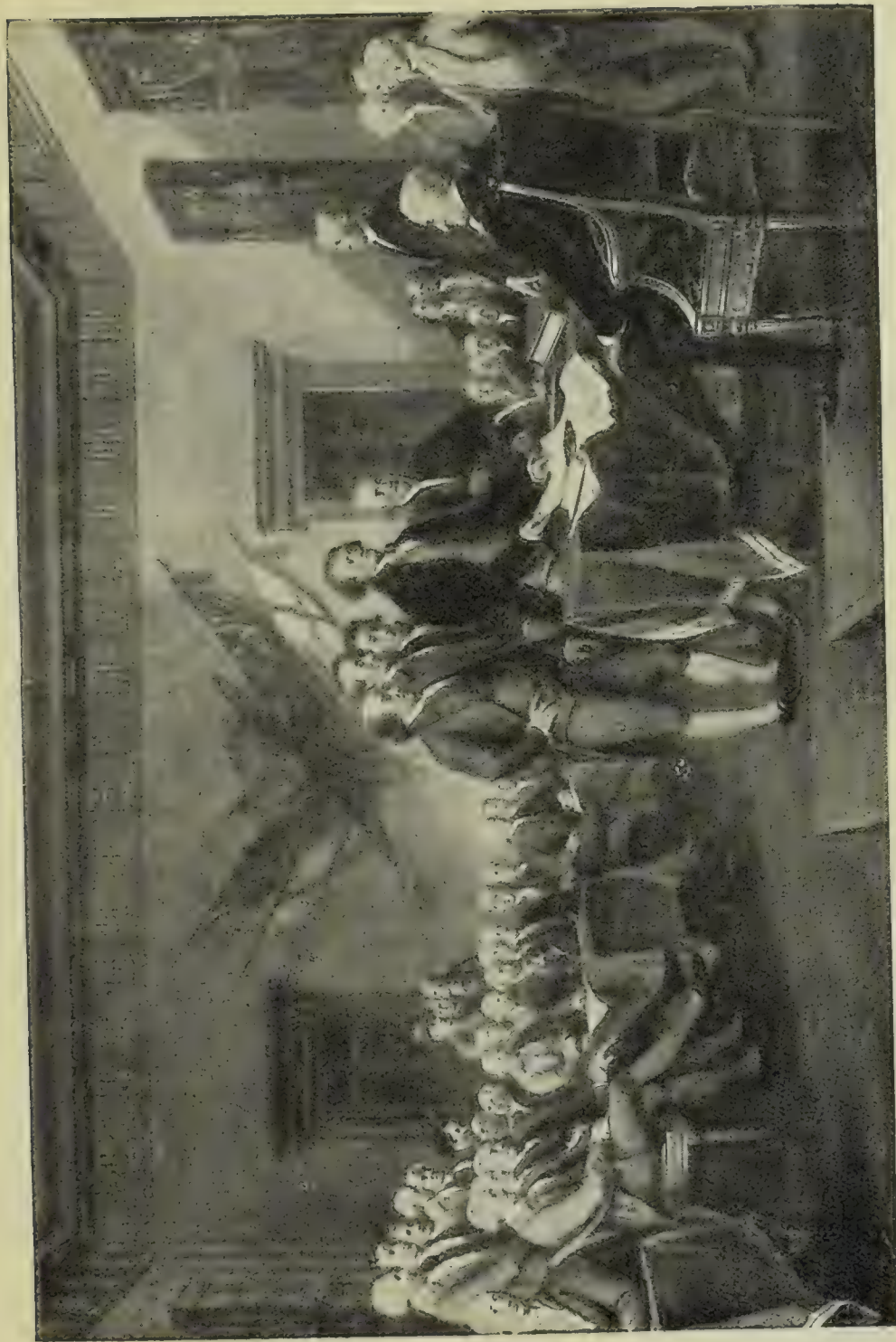
A skirmish at Lexington was followed by a battle known as that of Bunker Hill, which was won by the British troops only after a stern fight. In the following year there was held a Congress of representatives from the various American colonies, and the famous Declaration of Independence was published. "We, the representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled," ran the solemn words, "appealing to the supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States."

For the first two years the war went in favour of the mother country, for the American coast was everywhere open to the British fleet, and the hastily-raised and ill-equipped colonial militia found it hard to struggle against the trained soldiers of a regular army. The command of the colonial army had been entrusted to George Washington, and in spite of all his military skill, patriotic devotion, and stern resolution, he was at times reduced almost to despair. Then events happened which gradually turned the scale in favour of the colonists.

In 1777 a British force under General Burgoyne



Independence Hall, Philadelphia, where the Declaration of Independence was signed.



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, JULY 4, 1776.
(From the picture by Trumbull.)

was obliged to surrender at Saratoga in the State of New York. Then the French, ready to take revenge for the loss of Canada twenty years before, came to the help of the new nation; and it was largely owing to their assistance that the war ultimately ended in favour of the United States. Thus we see how this struggle also belongs to the series of six great wars in which our chief antagonist was France.

Spain and Holland also lent their aid to the United States, and the contest became not merely colonial but European. The British lost for a time that command of the sea which was the first necessity for success. Their general, Lord Cornwallis, was shut up in Yorktown on Chesapeake Bay, and forced to surrender. Meanwhile a French and Spanish combined fleet was assembled in the Channel, and threatened an invasion of England. Another fleet laid siege to Gibraltar.

Slowly the tide began to turn. Admiral Rodney won two great naval victories, beating the Spaniards off Cape St. Vincent and the French in the West Indies. General Elliot, who had held Gibraltar for two years, bombarded the investing fleets with red-hot shell, and the famous fortress was relieved by British vessels of war.

Then, at last, peace was arranged at Versailles. Britain acknowledged the independence of the United



General Elliot

States, and gave up certain other colonial possessions to France and Spain. A section of the people of the United States were still loyal to the British Crown, and it was suggested that they should be conveyed to Australia, there to establish another New England. This, however, was found impracticable, and most of the loyalists crossed over into Canada, where they could still live, as they desired, under the British flag.

Chapter XXXIV.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

IN spite of the check to the work of empire-building, of which we read in our last chapter, Britain was steadily becoming one of the foremost nations of the world. While her soldiers and sailors had been fighting her battles by land and sea, other strenuous workers, scarcely less heroic, had been making this country the workshop of the world.

When George the Third—in whose reign we lost our American colonies—came to the throne of Britain, by far the greater number of his subjects lived in the rural or semi-rural districts, and worked on the farms. A comparatively limited number carried on manufactures, chiefly of woollen stuffs and calico, and these people did their work at home. The popula-



A hand-loom weaver.

tion numbered about one-fifth of what it is at the present day.

In our time most of the people of Great Britain live in towns, and are engaged in manufacturing a great variety of goods, not in their own homes, but in large factories filled with machinery of various kinds. Machines also do much of the farm work which used to be performed by hand labour.

This great change in the character of the work done by the people is often spoken of as the Industrial Revolution. It began in the reign of George the Third, with a few improvements in the appliances used for the spinning and weaving of cotton.

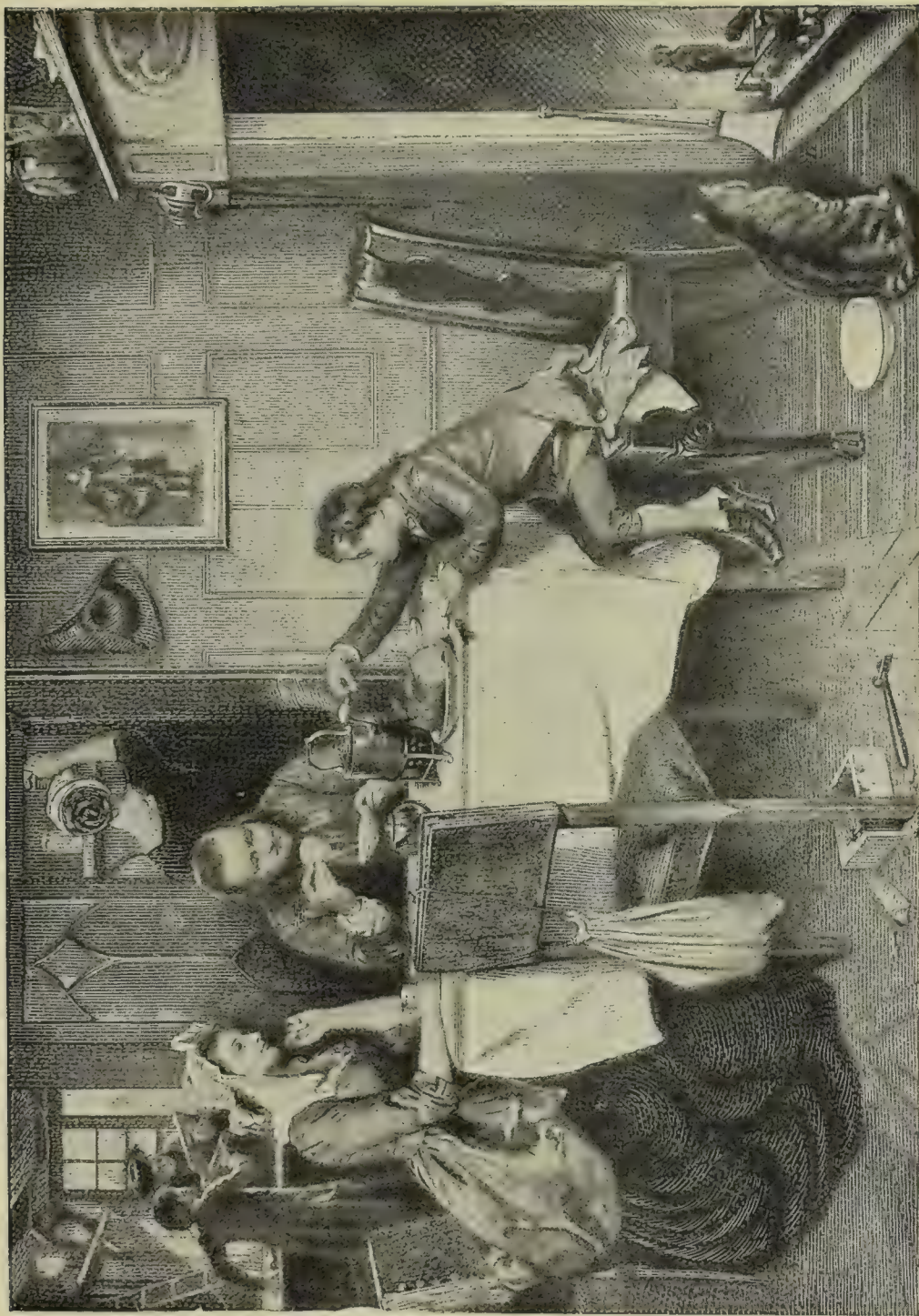
James Hargreaves, a Blackburn weaver, invented the "spinning-jenny," by means of which eight threads could be spun at one and the same time instead of the single thread of the spinning-wheel. Other inventors gradually improved on this, and then a weaving machine was invented to take the place of the cottager's hand-loom, and to do the work in a much shorter time. This machine was also improved upon as time went by.

The question now arose as to the best means of driving the new machinery, and James Watt, after years of patient work, and in the face of much discouragement, produced a steam-engine which supplied the power to work machines.

Very soon machines and engines were in great



James Watt.



THE BOY WHO PLAYED WITH THE KETTLE.

{From the picture by Marcus Stone, R.A. By permission of Messrs. Henry Graves and Co.}

demand, and this gave a great impetus to iron and coal mining, which so far had been carried on to a comparatively limited extent. In Scotland, South Wales, and Central England the miners were soon hard at work taking the two precious minerals from the mines.

To bring the coal to the cotton mills of Lancashire and the woollen mills of Yorkshire good roads were needed, and many of the old roads were repaired. Then James Brindley, a clever engineer, cut a canal from some coal mines at Worsley to Manchester, a distance of six miles ; and soon the work of canal-cutting was going on in other parts of the country also.

Iron, coal, and water were all required to carry on the new manufactures, and those districts where the three could be found in conjunction soon became the manufacturing portions of Britain. Towns sprang up in Lancashire, West Yorkshire, and the Midlands, as well as in the North of England and Central Scotland, and people flocked in from the farms to find work in the coal and iron mines, the mills, and the factories. Farming, of course, still went on, and, as we have said, numerous machines were invented for making agricultural work easier and more profitable to the farmer ; but Great Britain had ceased to be mainly a farming country, as it had been in the old days.

These changes brought about a great deal of discontent in various parts of the country. One of the

new machines did the work which had formerly required a large number of people, and many workers were thrown out of employment. In some places there were serious riots, and factories were stormed and machines broken to pieces. But as time went on the increase of business in the country, and the growing demand for British manufactured goods abroad, provided work for larger numbers of men, and these labour riots gradually ceased.

Now let us try to connect these changes with the work of empire-building, which is the chief subject at present under our consideration.

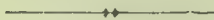
Britain, with her large number of busy factories, could not herself supply the raw material to keep them going. She had always raised sheep in great numbers, but now there were so many factories that a great deal of wool had to be brought from other countries. Cotton in huge quantities was also required for the mills of Lancashire, and this, of course, had all to be brought from far-off lands.

Besides this, the large working population had to be fed, and as time went on it became clear that Britain would have to draw a great part of her food supplies also from other countries, for her own farms and pastures could not feed the people of her busy workshops.

It is not difficult to see, therefore, that when our soldiers were fighting to establish the British power in far-off lands, and our sailors to win the command

of the sea, they were engaged in a struggle for winning the very means of life for the mother country. It was no mere greed of gain and glory which prompted our strenuous efforts to found an oversea empire, and to keep the sea open to our merchant ships. It was stern necessity.

The work of empire-building, however, was as yet not far advanced. We are now to see how it was resumed and continued after the loss of the American colonies.



Chapter XXXV.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

ONLY ten years after the close of the American War of Independence Britain was plunged into another great struggle, which lasted, with a short pause, for twenty-two years, and ended with the famous fight on the field of Waterloo. This war arose out of the great social upheaval known as the French Revolution.

When peace was concluded in 1783, France found herself in a very exhausted and impoverished condition. She was troubled, too, by dissension among the various sections of her people; and the misery in all parts of the country had the effect of directing the minds of thinking men to the method of government which made such a state of things possible.



ROUGET DE L'ISLE SINGING THE MARSEILLAISE.

(From the painting by Pils, in the Louvre Gallery. Photo by Mansell.)

In his "French Revolution" Carlyle tells how a band of men was sent out from Marseilles by the Municipality with the simple command, "March, strike down the Tyrant."

"Dusty of face, with frugal refreshment," writes Carlyle, "they plod onwards; unweariable, not to be turned aside. Such march will become famous. The Thought which works voiceless in this black-browed mass, an inspired Colonel, Rouget de l'Isle, has translated into grim melody and rhythm; into his Hymn or March of the Marseillaise: luckiest musical-composition ever promulgated. The sound of which will make the blood tingle in men's veins; and whole Armies and Assemblages will sing it, with eyes weeping and burning, with hearts defiant of Death, Despot, and Devil."

The king had absolute power, and maintained an expensive and luxurious court. To keep up this state of royal magnificence the middle and lower classes were heavily taxed, while the nobles and clergy were almost entirely exempt. Men began to ask why these things should be permitted. In Great Britain, they said, the people had a share in the government and in the imposition of taxes. In America they had witnessed the spectacle of successful revolt against what was considered oppression. Why should not France also become free?

The discontent at length became so pronounced that King Louis the Sixteenth took steps to allay it. He called together an old-established council, named the States-General, which had not met for several generations, and which consisted of three sections, representing respectively the nobility, the clergy, and the commons. The last-named section soon obtained the upper hand, and turned the States-General into a National Assembly, in which the commons greatly outnumbered the clergy and the nobles.

King Louis, full of alarm, called out the royal troops. The Assembly replied by organizing a National Guard. It was reported that the king had ordered the commander of the Bastille, a fortress and prison in Paris, to turn his guns upon the city. A great mob collected, attacked the Bastille, murdered its defenders, and razed it to the ground.



French soldiers—time of Revolution.

When the king heard of this he said, "Why, it is a revolt." "Nay, sire," returned one of his courtiers, "it is a revolution."

The storming of the Bastille was the first decisive act in the popular movement. The king soon lost all control of affairs, and before long was himself in prison. In 1792 a French Republic was set up, and in the following year the king was beheaded. All over the country the peasants rose in revolt and burned the houses of the nobles, many of whom were murdered, while some fled for safety to other countries.

Then began what is known in history as the "Reign of Terror." The queen, Marie Antoinette, was beheaded, and day after day the noble families—men, women, and children—were carried off in batches to the guillotine. After a time this murderous fury spent itself, but not before hundreds of the hated aristocrats had been put to death.

When the Revolution began there were many people in England who thought that the movement was the beginning of a new and glorious era of liberty for France. One English poet of the time wrote,—

"Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
But to be young was very heaven."

But the excesses of the revolutionists soon caused a change of feeling, and after a while there arose in Britain a strong desire for war with France.



Aristocrats (French Revolution).



Napoleon on the Battlefield.

At this time the Prime Minister was William Pitt, a son of the William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, who sent Wolfe to "take Quebec." He saw clearly that Britain needed rest after her many wars, and he did his best to preserve peace. But after the execution of the French king he gave up the attempt. Indeed, by this time the leaders of the Revolution had themselves taken the first step by declaring war on Britain, and sorely against his will Pitt had to brace himself to the task of conducting a gigantic struggle with France.

Meanwhile the armies of the French Republic, fired with their success against royal tyranny, had begun to invade other countries of Europe with the object of helping the people to set up new governments on their own model. This roused the princes of Europe to united action, and a league was formed against France, including Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and several smaller powers. So Europe became once more a great battle-ground, and the chief combatants were, as before, Britain and France. The struggle, when it begins, appears to have little connection with the national rivalry we have been tracing, or with the contest for oversea territory. But before the story of the war is closed we shall see that it became part of this great movement.

The armies of Austria and Prussia invaded France, but were at once driven out. France conquered Holland, and established a republic. Then Prussia and

Spain made peace, leaving Britain and Austria to carry on the war alone.

In the year 1793 a British force which had occupied Toulon was driven out by a young artillery officer, a native of Corsica, named Napoleon Bonaparte, who was destined to become the chief figure in Europe for the next twenty years. As a compensation for this last rebuff the British admiral, Lord Howe, won a great victory over the French fleet off Ushant.

Two years later Bonaparte led a French army into the Austrian territories in Italy, and after a series of brilliant successes forced the emperor to sign a truce. Thus he broke up the alliance between Austria and Britain, and the war resolved itself into a duel between ourselves and the French.

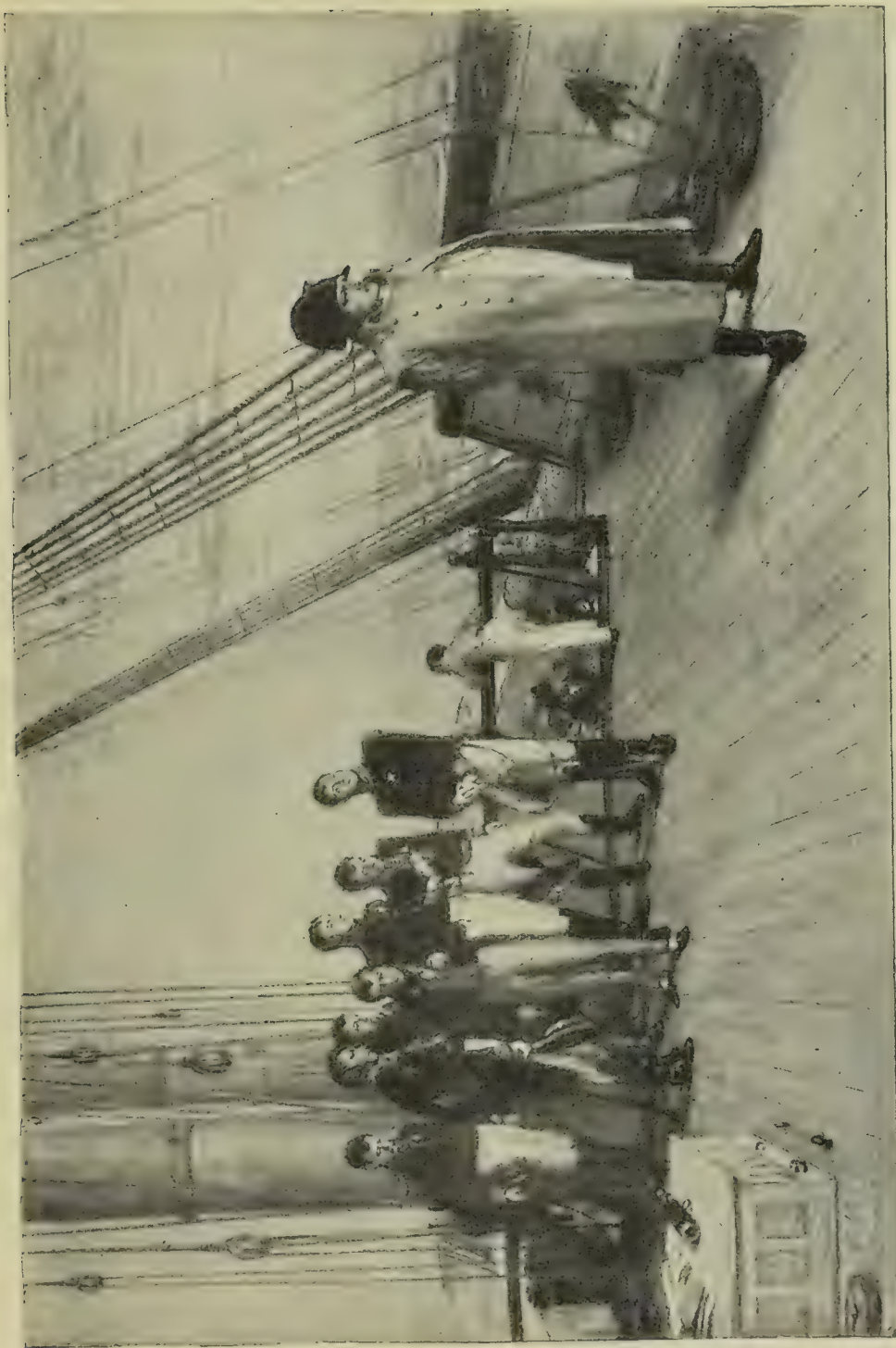


Napoleon as an artillery officer.

Chapter XXXVI.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

AS the struggle with France goes on we shall see that the possession of the New World and of India is still one of the grounds of quarrel. When Napoleon rose to the chief power in France, as he did after his victories over Austria, he made it the object of his life not only to dominate Europe, but to recover for France the place she had lost in the world beyond the seas.



NAPOLEON ON BOARD THE "BELLEROPHON."
(From the picture by W. Q. Orchardson, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.
By permission of the Berlin Photographic Co.)

"He sees in England," writes a historian, "never the island, the European state, but always the World-Empire, the network of dependencies, and colonies, and islands covering every sea, among which he was himself destined to find at last his prison and his grave."

When he took charge of the war with Britain he began by examining the Channel and considering the possibility of invasion. Landings were actually made by the French at Bantry Bay in Ireland, and on the Welsh coast, but each of these proved a failure. Preparations were made, however, for a more serious invasion in the following year, in which the Dutch and the Spaniards, who had been forced to join France against us, were to take part.

When all was ready the Spanish fleet sailed from Cartagena, with the intention of joining the French fleet at Brest, to cover the projected invasion. It was attacked off Cape St. Vincent by Admiral Jervis, who took several of the ships and forced the rest to seek refuge in Cadiz Harbour.

Meanwhile Admiral Duncan was cruising off the coast of Holland, to prevent the Dutch fleet from joining with that of France. Just at this time a mutiny broke out in the British navy, not only in the ships stationed near the mouth of the Thames, but also in the vessels commanded by Duncan, all but two of which sailed away from their station. But



Duncan's ships.

the brave admiral was not disconcerted. He remained at his post, and in order to conceal this desertion from the enemy, pretended to be making signals to the rest of his ships, as if they had merely sailed but a little way out to sea. Consequently the enemy never discovered the real state of affairs, and when at last they left their anchorage the mutiny was over, Duncan's ships had returned, and in the Battle of Camperdown which followed the admiral won a glorious victory, which helped greatly to dispel the fear of French invasion.

His first project of invasion having been thus frustrated, Napoleon tried another method of attack upon his arch-enemy. He remembered that France had at one time almost succeeded in conquering India, when her plans had been frustrated by Britain. So he formed a great project for attacking the British in India, and decided to conquer Egypt as a first step. In May 1798 he landed in that country, and took possession of Cairo.

The commander of the British Mediterranean fleet was a young English officer named Horatio Nelson, who had greatly distinguished himself in the Battle of Cape St. Vincent. Nelson made a strenuous endeavour to overtake Napoleon on his way to Egypt, but failing in this, he followed up the French fleet and engaged it in Aboukir Bay. Here was fought the great Battle of the Nile, in which the English

admiral almost entirely destroyed the French fleet, and shut up Napoleon's army in Egypt. This put fresh heart into the enemies of France on the mainland of Europe. Britain was now joined in her heroic fight by Austria and Russia, and the French troops were driven out of both Germany and Italy.

Later in the year, however, Napoleon returned from Egypt by way of Syria, and before long he had deprived the British of their two chief allies by a well-planned and vigorous campaign, which proved him to be, undoubtedly, one of the greatest generals the world had ever seen.

At the head of an army of thirty-five thousand men he crossed the Alps by the St. Bernard Pass, the highest point of which is eight thousand feet above sea-level, came down into the northern plain of Italy, and defeated the Austrians at Marengo. In the same year Moreau, one of his leading generals, inflicted another heavy blow upon Austria at Hohenlinden. Meanwhile Russia had retired from the contest, and Austria was now forced to make peace with the conqueror. Thus Britain was once more isolated.

In addition to this, she was threatened with war by the northern powers of Europe, who wished to trade with the French, and found that Britain would not permit them to do so. Thereupon Nelson sailed to Copenhagen, and won a great victory over the Danes in what is known as the Battle of the Baltic.



CAPTURE OF COPENHAGEN, 1801: THE "DANNEBROG" ON FIRE
(After the picture by J. P. Serres.)

After this peace was signed at Amiens, but no one really believed that the matters in dispute between France and Britain had been finally settled.

As a result of all this fighting Britain gained only Ceylon and Trinidad. She restored all the other conquests she had made during the war. One of these was the colony at the Cape of Good Hope, which had been taken from the Dutch, and which was of great importance from the fact that it lay on what was at that time the only route to our possessions in India. Britain also restored to France several islands in the West Indies which she had captured, and certain trading centres in India.

War with France had also been going on in India while Napoleon was fighting in Europe. The French stirred up several of the native princes against the British, and sent officers to train their troops on the European model. When Napoleon was in Egypt he made an alliance with an Indian ruler named Tipu Sahib, with the ultimate object of driving the British out of India altogether; and it was only by the wisdom and good generalship of the Governor-General, Lord Wellesley, aided by his brother Arthur, afterwards the

famous Duke of Wellington, that the plans of the French were frustrated.



Napoleon in Egypt.

Chapter XXXVII.

THE UNION WITH IRELAND.

WE have already noted (see p. 173) the part played by Ireland in the English Revolution of 1688. After that time the country was very harshly treated by the English Parliament. There was already a separate Irish Parliament in Dublin, but by certain Acts this body was deprived of nearly all its powers, and in effect the country was placed under the control of the British Crown. The Roman Catholics, who formed the bulk of the Irish nation, were treated with great severity.

When George the Third came to the throne, there began an active movement in Ireland for reform in the methods of government and the conditions of trade; for at that time Irish traders were not allowed free access to English and Colonial ports. After a good deal of agitation, the British Parliament gave Ireland trading rights which placed commerce between the two countries upon a better basis.

The next object of the Irish agitators was to reform the Parliament in Dublin, which represented only the Protestants—about one-sixth of the total population—and to secure representation for Roman Catholics in that Parliament. William Pitt was in favour of this step; but George the Third, influenced by a certain



Costume of the latter half of eighteenth century.

section of his advisers, opposed it, and no argument based upon justice or good policy could move him.

The result was the creation of a feeling of bitter discontent in Ireland, and before long a society was formed, known as the United Irishmen, which advocated rebellion. With the examples of the United States and France before them, the agitators were fired with the resolve to win similar liberty for their own country.

In 1798 a rebellion broke out. The plans of the leaders in Dublin were, however, betrayed, and fourteen of them were captured. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, who was regarded as the head of the conspiracy, escaped, but was afterwards seized, and died of the wounds received while resisting capture.

In other parts of the country, however, the rebels for a time gained the upper hand. In many districts there were dreadful riots. A large body of insurgents marched on Dublin, but were routed before they reached the city; whereupon they encamped on Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy. Here they were attacked by a large military force and put to flight.

Near the end of 1798 a French squadron arrived and landed a force to aid the rebels. Thus the Irish Rebellion became a part of the great struggle then in progress between Britain and France. The invaders, however, after putting a body of militia to flight, were themselves surrounded and captured. This ended the revolt.



Irish rebels.

William Pitt now proposed that the Irish Parliament should be brought to an end. This raised a great storm of opposition throughout Ireland. But the British Government by the most unscrupulous means secured the return of members to the Parliament in Dublin who would vote for the abolition of their own assembly. On the first day of the year 1801 the Irish Parliament ceased to exist. Henceforth Ireland was to be represented by Irish members sitting in the British Parliament, and there was to be equality of trading rights between the two countries.

At this time Roman Catholics were not allowed to become members of Parliament, and Pitt undertook to secure for them this right as well as others which were denied them because of their religion. But King George the Third strongly opposed these changes, and Pitt was obliged to give way to the king's desire "to preserve his coronation oath," which, he said, pledged him to defend the Church of England, and therefore, as he understood it, to deny political justice to Roman Catholics.

It was at the time of the Union with Ireland that the present Union Jack became the flag of Britain. It was formed by combining flags representing the three countries which formed the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. These were the red upright cross of St. George on a ground of white for England, the white saltire or cross of St. Andrew

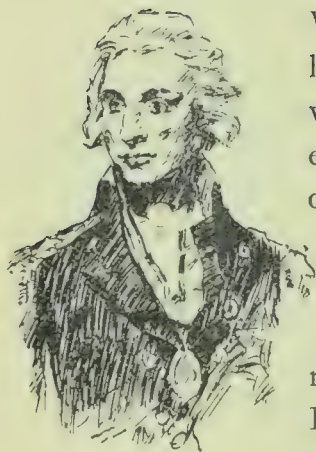


William Pitt.

on a blue ground for Scotland, and the red saltire or cross of St. Patrick on a white ground for Ireland.

Chapter XXXVIII.

NAPOLEON AND NELSON.



Nelson.

WHEN Bonaparte made peace with Britain in 1802, he only wished to secure time to prepare for the invasion of the island kingdom which had so persistently foiled his plans. He had now become monarch of France in all but name. He had sent a French army into Switzerland, and set up a republic there which was practically dependent upon his will. In Italy he had joined several small states into another republic, of which he was the actual head; while Piedmont and the island of Elba had become French territory. There was now no power on the Continent which dared to oppose him.

After a truce of a little over a year he provoked the British Government into declaring war. Pitt once more took in hand the management of affairs; and the country had great need of his courage and wisdom, for in this particular war she was exposed to very great danger.

In 1804 Napoleon was crowned in Paris as Emperor of the French. He now proceeded to collect



NELSON TAKING LEAVE OF HIS GRANDMOTHER.

(From the picture by George W. Joy. By permission of the artist.)

at Boulogne an enormous force of picked soldiers, as well as a great fleet of boats, by means of which they might be transferred across the Channel. It would be easy, he said, on some calm, foggy night to have his army carried across the water under protection of French men-of-war, and next morning his troops would be marching on London. The news of his preparations caused great excitement in England, and before long a force of three hundred thousand volunteers was ready to support the regular army in resisting the expected invasion.*

For the success of Napoleon's project it was, however, necessary that the French should obtain command of the Channel, at least during the twelve hours which would be required for the transportation of the invading army. In order to secure this command Napoleon hit upon an ingenious plan.

His fleet was at the time in Toulon Harbour, under the close and patient observation of a British fleet under Admiral Lord Nelson. Napoleon sent orders to Villeneuve, the French admiral, to slip out of the harbour under cover of rough weather, and effect a junction with the Spanish fleet at Cadiz. The combined fleets were then to sail for the West Indies, in order to draw off Nelson in pursuit.

Arrived at the West Indies, the French fleet was

* Such an untrained force, however large, would have been of little use in the crisis.



Volunteers, time of Pitt.

at once to put about and return with all speed to Brest, there to engage the British squadron which formed the sole defence of the English Channel. Having defeated this squadron, the French and Spanish fleets were to hold the Channel while the transportation of the French troops was being carried out.

The plan was daring and clever, and it almost succeeded. The combined fleets sailed across the Atlantic with Nelson in hot pursuit. They returned, to find a British squadron waiting for them off Cape Finisterre. A battle took place, and the result, though indecisive, gave Nelson time to come up. Villeneuve thereupon sailed for Cadiz, and the failure of his plans greatly angered Napoleon, who broke up his camp at Boulogne and marched into Germany.

For the British statesman had been at work as well as the British admiral. Pitt had once more gained the active help of Russia and Austria against Napoleon, and had consequently drawn the French army away from the shores of the Channel. At Ulm in Würtemberg, however, Napoleon defeated an Austrian army; but on the following day one of the greatest naval battles in the world's history was fought and won.

Villeneuve had put out from Cadiz at the head of the combined French and Spanish fleets, and had fallen in with Nelson off Cape Trafalgar. The British fleet numbered twenty-seven ships, that of the allies

thirty-three. Nelson advanced in two columns, and succeeded in breaking the enemy's line in two places. Then he set to work to destroy the three sections into which he had divided the hostile fleet, and won a complete victory.

Of the thirty-three vessels under Villeneuve only eight succeeded in making Cadiz Harbour. Eighteen were captured or destroyed, three were wrecked, and four escaped only to be taken at a later date. Never again during the war was a French or a Spanish fleet a serious menace to Britain. So far as the sea was concerned the long and bitter struggle with France was over. Yet this great triumph was shadowed by the irreparable loss of Nelson, who was mortally wounded in the engagement, and died in the hour of victory.

Britain was now undisputed mistress of the seas, but Napoleon was supreme on land. From Ulm he had passed to the capture of Vienna, and about two months after Trafalgar he won one of his greatest victories at Austerlitz, where he inflicted a severe blow upon the combined forces of Austria and Russia.

This wreck of his plans hastened the death of Pitt, who was at the time in a weak state of health. "Roll up that map of Europe," he said, when news of Austerlitz reached him; "it will not be wanted these ten years." Worn out with work, he passed away, only three months after Nelson's victory at Trafalgar.



Napoleon.



The Battle of Trafalgar.

(From the painting by Clarkson Stanfield, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)

Chapter XXXIX.

NAPOLEON AND WELLINGTON.

*Wellington.*

ON sea the schemes of Napoleon had been foiled by Admiral Lord Nelson. On land the great conqueror was destined to find his match in Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington who began his military career in India, as we have already noted.

After he had been crowned as Emperor of the French, Napoleon made himself master of practically the whole of Western Europe. He marched on Vienna, and forced the Austrians to give up all claims upon Italy. He made Holland into a kingdom, and gave the crown to his brother Louis. A number of German states were leagued together into a confederation, of which he was to be the head. His brother Jerome was made monarch of a new kingdom of Westphalia. The Spanish king was driven from his throne, and Napoleon's brother Joseph was set up in his place. Rome had become French territory, and the Pope had been carried away into captivity. Russia was humbled completely, and almost lost her independence.

But Britain withstood this conqueror of the world, and he planned and worked for her destruction. He would not allow the nations of Europe to trade with her, for he was astute enough to see that this would be the readiest means of bringing the country to ruin.

Yet in spite of his orders British trade grew and prospered, and many even of his own soldiers were clad in British cloth.

When Napoleon's brother had been made King of Spain that country rose in revolt. The emperor sent army after army to subdue the proud Spaniards, but they could not succeed in the task. Spain appealed to Britain for help, and an army was sent to Portugal, with Sir Arthur Wellesley in command. He landed on August 1, 1808, and thus began what is known as the Peninsular War. It lasted for six years.

Within two weeks of his landing in Portugal, Wellesley had twice beaten the French, and they agreed to leave Portugal. Then Napoleon himself came to Madrid, and in spite of the victory of the British under Sir John Moore at Corunna, the French power was for a time triumphant, and the British force sailed for home. At that moment Austria rose against the conqueror, who left Spain, and won another great victory near Vienna.

In 1809 Wellesley came back to Portugal and marched on Madrid, but was forced to retreat. He occupied the winter in strengthening his position in Portugal, fortifying the famous Lines of Torres Vedras, which extended from the Tagus to the sea. There, with his back to the ocean, he defied the French attacks.

In the spring he drove the French out of Portugal,



Sir John Moore.



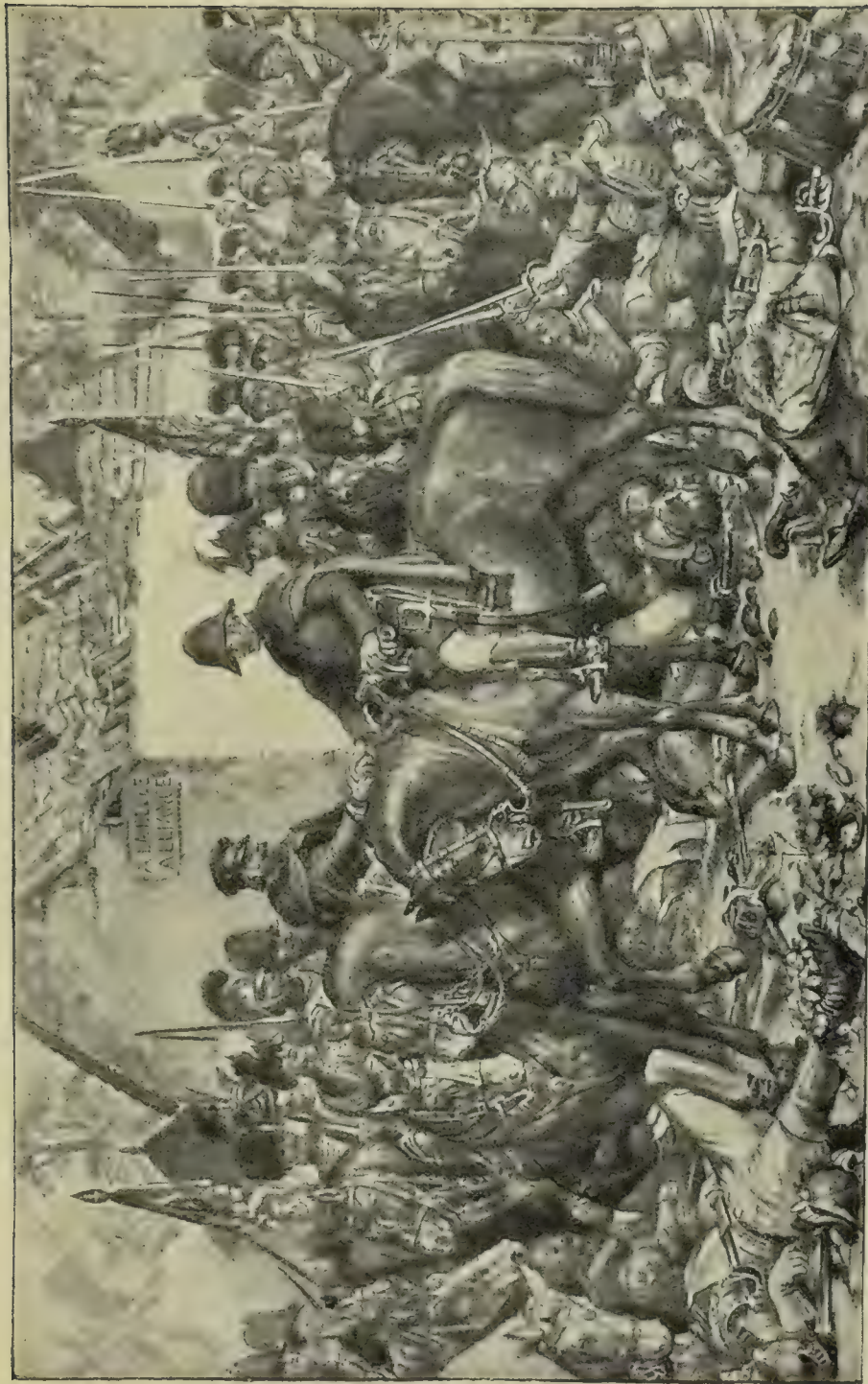
Soldiers of the Peninsular War.

took two strong fortresses which barred the entry to Spain, and by dint of great perseverance was able to force his way to Madrid. Finally, after five years of vigorous campaigning against tremendous odds, he drove the French beyond the Pyrenees and entered France itself. Not far from the city of Toulouse the British had just won a decisive victory, when the news came to France that the armies of her Emperor had been utterly vanquished and dispersed.

The downfall of the world-victor had been brought about far from the scenes of his military triumphs. Napoleon had invaded Russia and marched on Moscow, only to find it deserted and in flames. His army was forced to retreat across the wintry plains of Western Russia, and on the return march he lost some three hundred thousand men.

Russia, Prussia, and Austria now leagued together, and at Leipsic utterly routed the remnant of his army, which had been hastily augmented by a large number of raw recruits. Then the allies marched on Paris, and the fallen conqueror was forced to resign his crown. The French royal line was restored; a brother of Louis the Sixteenth was made King of France, and Napoleon was sent as a prisoner to the little island of Elba, off the coast of Italy, of which he was permitted to call himself "Emperor." This was in 1814.

Ten months later he made his escape, came back to



MEETING OF WELLINGTON AND BLÜCHER AFTER THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

(The central portion of the large mural painting by Daniel Maclise, R.A., in the Houses of Parliament.)

France, and soon had a huge army at his back. In Paris he was hailed with acclamation, and the new French king fled from the capital.

At once war began again. Wellington was sent with an army to Belgium, to join the forces of Prussia under Blücher. Napoleon tried to come between the allies. Part of his army was beaten by Wellington at Quatre Bras; but he defeated the Prussians on the same day at Ligny, and forced them to retreat northwards. The British then fell back towards Brussels in order to keep in touch with Blücher, and took up a strong position near Waterloo.

There, on Sunday, June 18, 1815, the most decisive of modern battles was fought. For a long time the issue was doubtful, so well matched were the combatants. Again and again the French attack was repulsed by the dogged British and Belgian infantry before the Prussians under Blücher came to Wellington's assistance and assailed the flank of Napoleon's position. The French Guards under Ney then made their last desperate charge, but could not break the solid British lines. It was now Wellington's turn. The order to advance, for which the patient army had long waited, was given at last. The British advanced, and the remnant of Napoleon's magnificent force was driven from the field in utter rout.



*Napoleon's soldiers, a cuirassier
and the Old Guard.*

The long struggle between France and Britain was at an end. Napoleon gave himself up to the captain

of a British ship, and was sent to the lonely island of St. Helena in mid-Atlantic, where he died after an exile of six years. The Bourbon king returned to the throne of France, and a general European settlement was effected.

So Britain emerged victorious from her hundred years' struggle with France. The fight had been for foreign empire and the command of the sea, and both of these were now won. As we have seen, it was on our part a fight for existence. Britain needed an oversea empire and a safe passage for her trading-ships if she was to become anything more than a small European state. France needed neither of these things, for she is so placed and endowed by nature that she is quite capable of supporting a large population by her own natural resources.

During the long struggle Britain had taken nearly all the foreign possessions of her foes, chiefly because she had the command of the ocean. At the Peace of Paris in 1815 she restored many of these, but she kept Malta, certain of the West India Islands, and the colony at the Cape of Good Hope. We shall see in the concluding chapters of this book what was done in later years to develop and extend this great empire beyond the sea.



Marshal Ney.



Hougoumont.

Chapter XL.

THE REFORM ACT.

THE eighteenth century was a time of almost continuous war. The nineteenth century was, on the whole, an age of peace.

Our story now deals, not with international conflict, but with social, intellectual, and political advance, extension of trade and the consolidation of our territories. Yet during the first twenty years after the Battle of Waterloo there was a great deal of discontent and misery in our country. The war had cost enormous sums of money, and while the fighting went on the price of food and other necessities had been very high; so that, in spite of expanding trade and high wages for the workers in the factories, there had been little real national prosperity.

After the peace it was hoped that matters would improve. But the long wars had exhausted the other countries of Europe also, and they were not in a position to buy the goods which crowded the warehouses of British manufacturing towns. Many workers were thrown out of employment, and in several places there were serious riots. Bands of starving factory workers, who were known as Luddites, attacked the mills in the north and destroyed the machines, because, they said, it was the introduction of machinery which had caused



NAPOLÉON AT ST. HELENA.

(From the picture by Paul Delaroche, in the Royal Collection.)

the lack of employment. There were disturbances also in the country districts, and much damage was done on many of the large farms.

Matters went from bad to worse, and even the wisest men of the age were greatly puzzled to know how to relieve the misery in the country. At this time George the Third passed away after a long and eventful reign, and was succeeded by his son George the Fourth. During the time of this monarch there was some improvement in the country, though the king himself deserves little credit for it.

At first the Government had tried to restore order by the employment of force. A great mass meeting at Manchester was dispersed by cavalry, with some loss of life. In other parts of the country meetings were broken up, and the newspapers were forbidden to publish matter which, in the opinion of the authorities, was calculated to lead to disturbances. But as time went on those who had the government of the country in their hands began to recognize that the nation could not be dragooned into contentment.

The Parliament of the nation had always been looked upon as the safeguard of British liberty, but the Parliament of the time did not really represent the people. It was, on the whole, an assembly of men who were chiefly concerned in promoting the interests of the great landowners and wealthy merchants.

Only a very small number of the people were voters,

and many of those who were entitled to vote sold their privilege to the highest bidder. Others voted as their landlord wished in order to gain his favour or to avoid losing their farms or their houses. Some of the large towns which had grown up since the introduction of machinery, such as Manchester and Birmingham, were not represented in Parliament at all. On the whole, the country was far removed from the ideal state of government which we have several times referred to—that in which the representatives of the whole people govern the nation.

As time went on some of the best men of the day began to urge the reform of Parliament and of the methods of electing members as the first step towards settling the discontent throughout the country. The leader in this movement was Lord John Russell, who introduced a Reform Bill in the House of Commons, but failed to get sufficient support for it. A new Parliament was then elected, which carried the Bill by a majority of over one hundred. In accordance with the usual custom, the Bill was now sent to the House of Lords, where it was rejected.

This raised a great storm of anger throughout the country, and in many places there were serious riots, some of which were accompanied by loss of life. The House of Lords, alarmed at the outcry, then decided to pass the Bill, but with such alterations as would have made it of little real effect.



Lord John Russell.

Once again the riots broke out, and the cry rang throughout the country, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." After a time of great excitement, which seemed, indeed, to threaten revolution, the Bill passed the House of Lords, and became the law of the land.

The general effect of the measure was to give to the middle classes of the nation a real share in the government of the country through their representatives in Parliament. The working classes, however, did not secure this right until thirty-five years later, as we shall see in a subsequent chapter. The large manufacturing towns were now to send members to help to make the laws of the country, and certain small places which had once been important but had declined were deprived of Parliamentary representation.

When the first Reform Parliament was called together several important changes were made which helped to put an end to certain abuses of government. The Poor Law was changed so as to discourage idleness. A small grant of money was made for helping to provide elementary schools. Most important of all, an Act was passed which freed all the negro slaves throughout the British colonies. This last change cost the nation a sum of £20,000,000, which was paid to the slave-owners as compensation.

These great changes took place in the reign of William the Fourth, who died in 1837. He was suc-

ceeded by his niece, Queen Victoria, whose reign witnessed remarkable progress in all directions. It is interesting to note that the two periods of greatest progress in our history were the reigns of two great queens—Queen Elizabeth and Queen Victoria.

Chapter XLI.

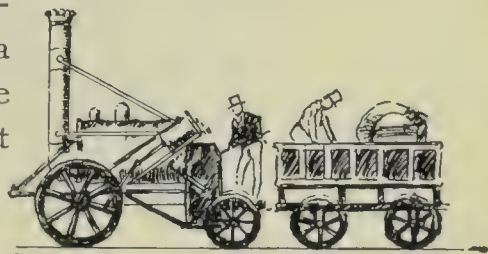
THE VICTORIES OF PEACE.



A mail-coach.

QUEEN VICTORIA reigned from 1837 to 1901, a period of nearly sixty-four years. During this time so many great changes took place in the country and the empire that it is very difficult to give in this small book any adequate idea even of the most important. The effect of these changes was to make the ordinary life of the people happier, fuller, and on the whole easier, and we shall here name a few of them.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne the chief means of travelling was the stage-coach, but only a few years before her accession the first passenger railway had been opened, between Liverpool and Manchester. Over this line a steam-engine, named the "Rocket," drew a single coach at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour. The engine of this first



The "Rocket."

passenger train was built by George Stephenson, a native of Wylam, near Newcastle-on-Tyne.

After a while the new method of travelling became popular, and railroad-building began all over the country. Locomotives and trains were gradually improved. The first third-class passenger coaches were open trucks somewhat similar to those now used for the conveyance of cattle. People who had carriages of their own often had them fastened upon railway trucks and travelled in them.

At the present time we have splendid long-distance trains drawn by powerful steam locomotives sometimes at a rate of sixty miles an hour. The carriages are equipped with every comfort, while dining-cars are provided where meals may be taken on the journey, and sleeping-cars for those who travel during the night. Railways run in almost all parts of the country, piercing through mountains, crossing rivers and deep valleys by bridges and viaducts, and even passing by means of tunnels under broad river estuaries like those of the Mersey and the Severn. We have also electric trains for shorter journeys, some of them, as in London, running through tunnels, or "tubes," deep down in the earth. The electric tram, the bicycle, and the motor car provide rapid means of transit by road. All these inventions have had a great effect on the national habits and character. At the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign most



George Stephenson.



THE RETURN FROM THE CRIMEA.
(From the picture by Sir Noel Paton, R.S.A.)

people spent their lives in their native district. At the present day travel is easy, safe, cheap, and comfortable, and there are few people who do not avail themselves of the advantages thus offered to them by this means.

Twenty-five years before Queen Victoria came to the throne the first steamboat was launched upon the Clyde. In the year following her accession the voyage from Bristol to New York was accomplished by the steamship *Great Western* in fourteen days. Before long the sailing vessel was out of date for passengers. At the same time shipbuilders began to use iron and steel in place of wood, though it was a considerable time before the wooden men-of-war were replaced by the steel armour-plated monsters of the modern navy.

In the earliest years of "the wonderful reign" the postal service of the country was completely revolutionized by the introduction of the penny post, and before Queen Victoria passed away it was possible to send a letter to almost any part of the British Empire for a penny. It was in the last year of the reign of William the Fourth that the electric telegraph was invented, and within a comparatively short time this convenient means of communication was in general use. The telephone came later, and is now one of the commonplaces of modern life. Before the close of Queen Victoria's reign the possibilities of

wireless telegraphy had been proved and tested, and this method of conveying messages has already ceased to be wonderful.

In the early part of the nineteenth century there were very few schools in the country. But about the middle of the reign of Victoria an Act was passed making the education of the young the duty of the nation. Schools were built in all parts of the land, and before twenty years had gone by elementary education had been made free to all. The effect of these changes upon the life and character of the nation cannot be easily estimated. It is now difficult to find a man or woman who is unable to read and write, and the newest British schools are among the best equipped in the world.

Great advances have also been made in the practice of medicine and surgery, and in knowledge of the laws of health. A few generations ago the methods of the doctors were rough and ready—often, indeed, mere guesswork; and little was known of the causes of epidemic diseases such as cholera and smallpox. At the present time many diseases can be successfully treated which were once thought incurable; epidemics are less common, and seldom affect a very large number of people; the surgeon can perform the most critical operations without inflicting pain on his patient; and our towns are on the whole clean and healthy, owing to improved sanitary arrangements.

Nor are the services of the best doctors and surgeons available only for the rich. The poorest people can obtain their help and advice in the well-equipped hospitals which have been erected in many parts of the country.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne newspapers were few, and cost usually about sixpence a copy. At the end of her reign we could buy a morning paper containing the news of the world for a halfpenny. The cost of books has also been greatly lessened. In 1837 a good library could only be acquired by those who were well-to-do. The working man of the present day can provide himself with a supply of the best books at an extremely small cost, or he can borrow them from the public library without any payment whatever. Great advances have also been made in illustrating books, largely owing to the invention and perfection of the photographic camera, which is another wonderful product of the Victorian age.

These are only a few of the most important changes, affecting the everyday life of the people, which were made during the reign of Queen Victoria. It is worthy of note that they were rendered possible only by the freedom from great and expensive wars which the country enjoyed during the greater part of the nineteenth century. The rise in prices due to the Great War of 1914-18 has taught us this lesson.

Chapter XLII.

THE ADVANCE OF EMPIRE.

AT the time of the Battle of Waterloo Britain was firmly established in India, Australasia, North America, and South Africa. During the long reign of Queen Victoria she greatly extended her territory and strengthened her position in each of these quarters of the globe. Let us consider each in turn.

INDIA.

In 1815 the British possessions in India comprised only one-fourth of the dominions which are now under our direct control. These territories were extended by various campaigns which we were forced to undertake if we wished to retain our hold upon India at all.

We fought with the brave Mahrattas of Central India, and after a great struggle brought their principalities under our control; with the Burmese, and took from them a large territory beyond the Ganges; with the Afghans on the north-west frontier, where lies the land-gate to India from Eastern Europe; and with the Sikhs, who, after much fighting in the plain of the "Five Rivers," were finally subdued. We also took every opportunity of annexing vassal states whenever ruling native houses died out, and we de-



An Indian rajah.



The Coronation of Queen Victoria.

throned the ruler of the kingdom of Oudh for rank misgovernment. So the work of extension went on until, about the middle of the nineteenth century, it received a serious though temporary check.

At that time the native or Sepoy troops outnumbered our own soldiers in India by six to one, and for various reasons there was grave discontent among them. In the year 1857 a rebellion broke out in Oudh and the North-West Provinces, and during the progress of this Indian Mutiny, as it has been called, there was grave danger of a general rising, which might have been the means of completely destroying our power in the peninsula. Fortunately, however, the revolt did not extend beyond the provinces named.

The struggle centred round the towns of Delhi, Cawnpore, and Lucknow. At Cawnpore there was a cruel massacre of women and children, whose mutilated bodies were thrown into a well. A large force of the mutineers took possession of Delhi, and it was only after desperate fighting that the city fell into the hands of the British. The defence of Lucknow, and its relief by Sir Colin Campbell, provided one of the most stirring chapters of the whole of our empire history.

After the Mutiny had been suppressed the rule of the East India Company was brought to an end, and the government of the country was transferred



Indian cavalry officers.

to the British Crown. Nearly twenty years later the title of Empress of India was assumed by Queen Victoria.

AUSTRALASIA.

We have already seen how Captain Cook carried our flag to the Southern Seas. It was, however, a long time after his explorations before the advantages of settlement in Australia and New Zealand were realized in Britain. In 1851 gold was discovered in the southern district of New South Wales, and at once there was a rush for Australia. After a time the gold-fever abated, but the tide of emigration continued to flow. The country was found to be well suited for pastoral and agricultural pursuits, and it steadily increased in population and in wealth. In time the greater part of the coast regions of the eastern plains of Australia were developed into thriving colonies, and near the end of Queen Victoria's reign these colonies were united in one great federation of states, under the title of the Commonwealth of Australia.



A gold-miner, Australian diggings.

The twin islands of New Zealand, first explored by Captain Cook, were not colonized until the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. The first settlers, however, had many quarrels with the natives, and found in the Maori race a brave and determined foe. After the latter had been subdued, the two races settled down in amity, and many of the natives

adapted themselves to the ways of the white men. New Zealand greatly resembles the mother country in climate and general configuration, and has now become the home of a vigorous and progressive nation.

SOUTH AFRICA.

We saw, in an earlier chapter, how the old Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope was added to the empire after the final overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte. Cape Colony did not then extend to the Orange River, and it was peopled by a comparatively small number of Dutch farmers or Boers, who worked their farms largely by means of native slaves.

When British emigrants began to make their appearance in South Africa, the Boers keenly resented their presence, and many of them "trekked" into the more northerly districts as well as into Natal to found new homes for themselves. The British Government, however, eventually took over their settlement in Natal, and this step was followed by another Boer trek inland, where the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic were established about the middle of the nineteenth century.

The British settlers in Cape Colony had several wars with the Kaffirs before they finally secured the whole of the land which lies to the south of the Orange River. Then diamonds were discovered in the Kimberley district to the north of that river, and



Boer riflemen.

many of the colonists moved to this region, greatly to the discontent of the Boers.

Meanwhile the Dutch colonists of the Transvaal had become embroiled in fierce struggles with the natives, and were in serious difficulties. In 1877 the British Government, in the interests of peace on their own borders, annexed the Transvaal, and made war upon the Zulu tribes to the south, who were only subdued after a severe struggle. Then the Boers of the Transvaal rose against the British, defeated them at Laing's Nek and Majuba, and were granted self-government under the suzerainty of Britain.

As the years passed by British settlements were made to the north and west of the Transvaal. When gold was discovered in that colony, large numbers of British and other Europeans flocked to the mines. These were known to the Boers as "Uitlanders" (outlanders, or foreigners), and they were refused all political rights in the country. The British Government attempted to obtain for them as taxpayers some share in the control of affairs, but the negotiations were fruitless, and in 1899 the Boer War began.

At first the struggle went against the British, and it was only when Lords Roberts and Kitchener took over the management of the war that success attended our efforts. In 1901 the Orange Free State was annexed by Britain and re-named the Orange River Colony, and a little later the Transvaal also

became part of the British Empire. Peace was signed at Vereeniging in 1902, and some years later the two new colonies were made self-governing states like Cape Colony and Natal. At a later date the various South African states were federated to form one united nation.

CANADA.

During the nineteenth century the history of Canada was, on the whole, a record of steady progress. About the middle of Queen Victoria's reign the various colonies were federated into the Dominion of Canada, which now forms one of the most prosperous and progressive portions of the empire. The Canadian Pacific Railway was completed in 1885, and this greatly helped forward the prosperity of the country. The broad plains of the central region of the Dominion were rapidly developed, and turned into fruitful corn-fields, and Canada became what has been aptly called an "empire granary."

EGYPT.

The reign of Queen Victoria saw our establishment in Egypt, which forms a kind of halfway house on the way to India. This country was nominally a province of Turkey, but its government fell practically into the hands of the British, who purchased in 1875 a large share in the Suez Canal, and in 1914 Egypt was declared independent of Turkey.

Britain did not establish herself in this part of Africa without an effort. On account of debt and other difficulties, Egypt had been placed under the joint control of Great Britain and France. A section of the Egyptians rose against them, under an officer named Arabi Pasha, and it was not until Alexandria had been bombarded by a British fleet and a battle had been fought at Tel-el-Kebir that the rising was quelled. France refused to take her share in these operations against the rebels, and as a result Britain assumed sole responsibility and control of the country.

For a considerable time Egypt had been extending her influence in the vast region of the Sudan, which lies to the southward. In 1872 a British officer named Charles George Gordon had acted as governor of these provinces, and had done a great deal to check the slave trade carried on by the Arabs before he returned home to England. Not long after he left the Sudan, the whole district rose in rebellion against the Egyptian Government, under a Mohammedan leader known as the Mahdi or Prophet.

After an Egyptian force, under an English general, had been defeated, it was determined that the Sudan should be abandoned, and General Gordon was sent to Khartum to superintend the work of bringing away the Egyptian garrisons. Here he was surrounded and besieged by the troops of the Mahdi. Help



Khartum.



HOW GORDON DIED.

(From the picture by G. W. Joy. By permission of Messrs. Frost and Reid, Bristol and London, publishers of the large etching)

was sent to him, but too late. Khartum fell into the hands of the Mahdi's troops, and Gordon met his death.

Eleven years later Sir Herbert Kitchener, who had spent many years in building up an Egyptian army, began the operations which were destined to recover the Sudan for Egypt. His campaign was entirely successful. Khartum was retaken, and the Arab forces fled into the desert, only to be finally defeated at a later date. Thus by British means order was re-established in this region of Africa, which forms an extensive territory full of undeveloped wealth, and of the highest importance to Egypt, since it controls the water supply of the Nile. It is now under the joint rule of Great Britain and Egypt.



Chapter XLIII.

SOME GREAT VICTORIANS.—I.

IN the world of politics the reign of Queen Victoria was a period of great movements and great men. So full and active was the political life of the reign that we can only touch upon a few of the most prominent questions which agitated the minds of the men of the age.

Queen Victoria had scarcely been crowned when there was initiated an agitation for certain reforms,



Queen Victoria.

which was known as the Chartist movement, from a document called the "People's Charter." This Charter demanded, among other changes, a vote for every man in the country, a yearly Parliament, and vote by ballot. "A vote for every man," said one of the most prominent Chartists, "means that every worker will get a good coat, a good house, a good dinner, work enough for health, and wages enough for plenty." The movement was on behalf of the working classes, who, as we have already seen, had been left out of consideration when the Reform Act of 1832 was passed.

The Chartists rapidly increased in numbers, and a monster petition embodying their wishes was presented to Parliament. These demands were refused, and serious riots occurred in several parts of the country before the agitation died down.

While the Chartist movement was in progress another great agitation was being carried on which also concerned the working classes very closely. This was the movement in favour of a repeal of the Corn Laws, under which all corn brought into our ports from foreign countries was heavily taxed. The leaders in this movement were Richard Cobden and John Bright, two North Country manufacturers, who started the "Anti-Corn-Law League" at Manchester in 1838.

The Repealers were stoutly opposed by those who were interested in the growth of corn by the British farmer. If foreign corn came into our ports duty



John Bright.

free, they said, it could be sold at a cheaper rate than the home-grown product, and our own farmers would suffer. The manufacturers replied that if foreign corn came into the country duty free, workmen would obtain cheaper bread, and would not require such high wages, while the corn would be paid for with British manufactured goods, and thus trade would be encouraged. Meetings of the League were held in all parts of the country, and the question was warmly debated on both sides.



Sir Robert Peel.

About this time Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister, and one of the first steps he took was to modify the Corn Laws in such a way as to prevent the price of bread from rising to a very high rate. He also removed the duties from a large number of other articles imported into this country, and made it possible for British manufacturers to send cheaper goods to their customers abroad.

Finally he became a convert to the views of the Anti-Corn-Law League, and after a stiff fight succeeded in taking off the duties levied upon foreign corn. This was in 1846. In the previous year there had been a severe famine in Ireland owing to the failure of the potato crop, and thousands of people had died of starvation. It was pointed out by the League that the free importation of foreign corn would have prevented such waste of human life, and this famine had a great effect in bringing about the



SAVING THE COLOURS: AN INCIDENT OF THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN.

(From the picture by Robert Gibb, R.S.A. By permission of Mr. Bruce-Low.)

In the neighbourhood of the Sandbag Battery the British Guards were surrounded by a strong Russian force, through which they cut their way, with the colours carried high as a rallying point. The moment selected for representation is that when the Guards are first entering their own lines.

repeal of the Corn Laws. During Peel's Ministry, then, we see that Britain was fast becoming a supporter of the policy of free importation.

Peel's work as the Queen's chief minister was concerned for the most part with home affairs. About the middle of the reign the government came under the direction of a leader of a different stamp. This was Lord Palmerston, whose chief object was to make the country powerful abroad. He took office while we were engaged in a struggle with Russia—our only European contest during Queen Victoria's reign. This was the Crimean War of 1854-56.

In this war, which was fought in the Crimean Peninsula to the north of the Black Sea, we stood side by side with France and Turkey against Russia. Our real reason for entering into the struggle was to prevent the Czar from sending troops into Turkey, as it was thought he might seize Constantinople and disturb the "balance of power" in South-Eastern Europe, by which our interests in that part of the Continent might be endangered.

The war was really a great mistake, and it was very badly conducted by our Government in its first stages. The Russians were indeed driven back at the battles of the Alma and Balaklava, the latter engagement being made memorable by that glorious blunder the Charge of the Light Brigade. At Inkerman, too, the Russians were checked, but with very heavy loss

on the part of the allies. But when siege was laid to Sebastopol, the soldiers suffered terribly during the winter months in the trenches before the great fortress. The war was so badly managed by those who had control at home that Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was forced to resign, and Palmerston took his place.

Under his vigorous management matters steadily improved. Military hospitals were established at Scutari, near Constantinople, and Miss Florence Nightingale went out with a staff of nurses to undertake the work which won for her undying fame, and which led to the establishment of trained nurses for service in time of war.

After eleven months of siege the Russians withdrew from Sebastopol, and the war came to an end. The chief result of the struggle was that Britain, France, and Austria entered into a joint agreement to prevent any encroachment upon the Turkish Empire, as it was believed that the break-up of this country might ultimately lead to a general conflict in Europe.



Constantinople.

Chapter XLIV.

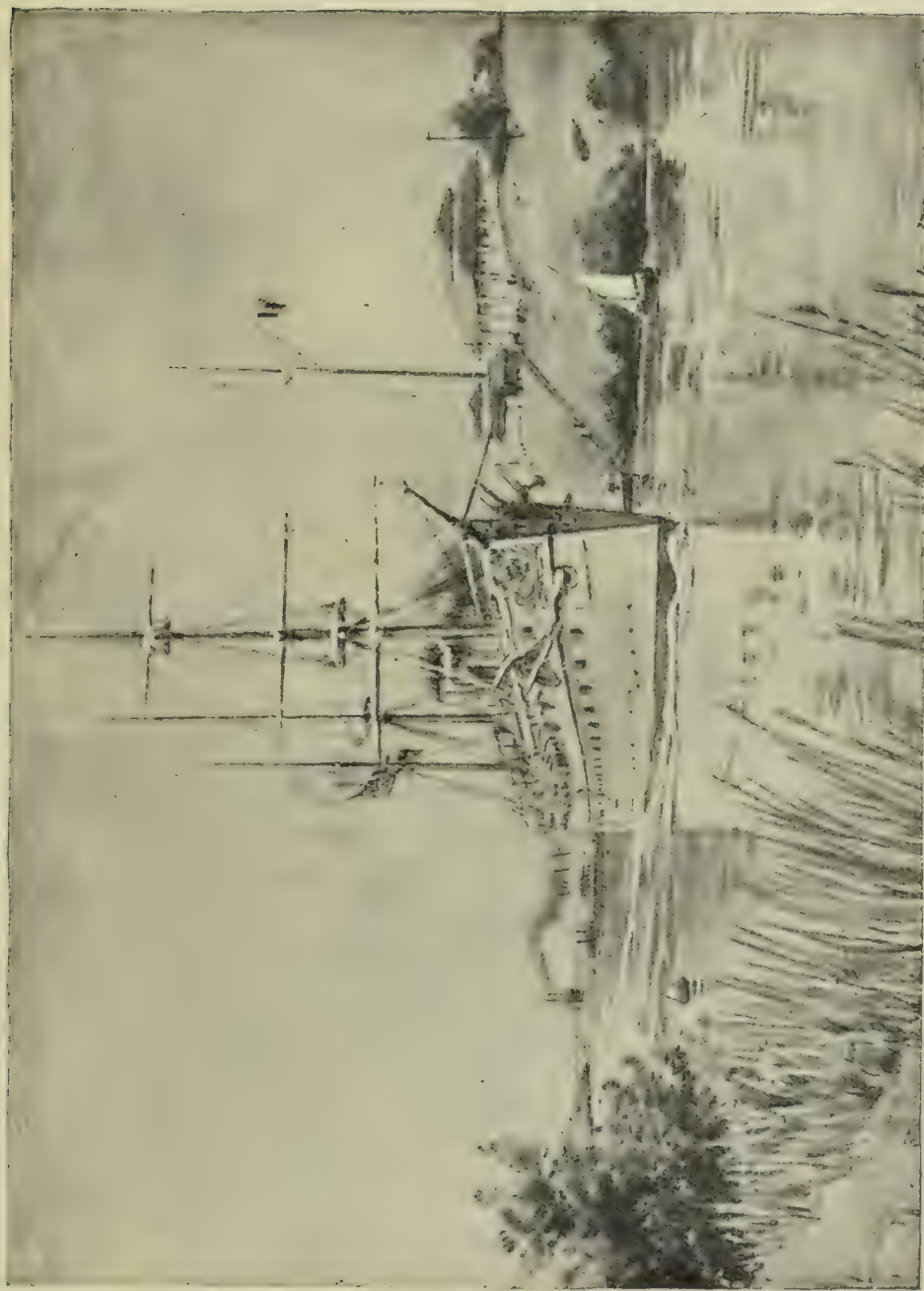
SOME GREAT VICTORIANS.—II.

*Disraeli.*

IN the latter part of the reign of Victoria two of the greatest figures in the political world were Benjamin Disraeli, afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield, the leader of the Conservatives, and William Ewart Gladstone, the leader of the Liberals.

Disraeli, like Lord Palmerston, distinguished himself in foreign affairs as well as in home politics. He was the son of a Jewish man of letters, and himself a novelist of some repute; and he first came into prominence when he stoutly opposed Peel's measure for the repeal of the Corn Laws. He thus became the leader of the opponents of Free Trade, who were known as Protectionists, because they wished to "protect" the interests of the British farmer and landowner.

When Disraeli became Prime Minister for the second time in 1874 he paid close attention to home affairs, and his Government passed some useful measures. Then his attention was drawn to matters far away from home. Hearing that the ruler of Egypt wished to sell his shares in the Suez Canal, he at once dispatched a telegram offering to buy them for £4,000,000—a step which was both wise and profitable, considering our interest in the Canal as a commercial highway and as the gate to India.



THE SUEZ CANAL—BRITISH TROOPSHIP PASSING THROUGH.

The construction of the Suez Canal was begun in 1859, under the direction of M. de Lesseps, and on November 17, 1869, it was opened for traffic. The total cost was about £20,000,000. The length of the canal from Port Said is nearly 100 miles.

In 1876 Disraeli became Earl of Beaconsfield, and took his seat in the House of Lords. About this time Russia and Turkey had gone to war chiefly because the misgovernment of the Sultan seemed to threaten the peace of South-Eastern Europe. The armies of the Czar soon overcame the ill-trained Turkish forces, and advanced upon Constantinople.

Beaconsfield thereupon asked Parliament for a grant of £6,000,000 for military purposes, and ordered the British ships in the Mediterranean to approach within a few miles of the Turkish capital. If the Russians had attacked the city a general European war would doubtless have ensued. But instead of doing this they offered terms of peace to the Sultan, which were accepted, and the war came to an end.

By the arrangement made between the combatants British interests were threatened, and Beaconsfield took further decisive steps. He called out the reserve forces, sent out more ships to the Levant, and brought Indian troops to Malta through the Suez Canal. Then he asked the Czar to modify the terms of the arrangement with Turkey. A meeting was held at Berlin, which Beaconsfield attended in person, and an arrangement was reached which gave us, as he claimed on his return, "peace with honour." So war between Britain and Russia was averted, though later generations have questioned the usefulness of the terms thus obtained from the Czar.

William Ewart Gladstone began his political life as a Tory, and was a member of Peel's Ministry, which was responsible for the repeal of the Corn Laws. At a comparatively early age he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and during his term of office he removed the duties from a large number of articles imported into this country from foreign lands, thus continuing Peel's policy of Free Trade.

During Queen Victoria's reign there was a good deal of discontent in Ireland, and when Gladstone became Prime Minister he set to work to try to allay this dissatisfaction. He introduced certain measures into Parliament, the objects of which were to deal more fairly with the Roman Catholics in Ireland, and to settle the standing quarrels between the landlords and their tenants.

But there was now a strong party among the Irish leaders who said that Ireland would never be really contented until her own separate Parliament was restored to her. In 1886 Gladstone announced that he had definitely decided to meet the wishes of these Home Rulers, and framed a Bill for the establishment of a separate Parliament in Dublin. This displeased not only the Conservatives, his political opponents, but also a number of the Liberal party, who at this time received the name of "Liberal Unionists," because they pledged themselves to do all in their power to maintain the union between Great Britain and Ireland.



W. E. Gladstone.

Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill was unsuccessful ; but he was convinced of the justice of his cause, and when he was an old man of eighty-two, and Premier for the fourth time, he brought in another Bill, which passed the Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords. In the following year the leader retired from the work in which he had been actively engaged for more than sixty years.



Queen Victoria at her first Council.

Perhaps the most famous of all the great Victorians was Queen Victoria herself, whose constant endeavour was to work and plan for the good of her people.

She came to the throne at the early age of eighteen, and she took great pains to understand thoroughly what was desired by the leaders of all the great movements of her reign. Her influence was always on the side of peace, and by the force of example she tried to show to her people that the happiness of the nation depended upon its moral uprightness and the good influence of its family life.

Soon after her accession she married her cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, who became known as the Prince Consort, and eight children were born to them—four sons and four daughters. The fiftieth year of her reign was celebrated with great rejoicing, and the queen attended a special jubilee service of national thanksgiving in Westminster Abbey. Ten years later what was known as her Diamond Jubilee was celebrated, when the aged monarch went in state



SONS OF THE EMPIRE.

(Types of Colonial soldiers who fought for the Flag in South Africa.)

"This for the waxen Heath, and that for the Wattle-bloom,
This for the Maple-leaf, and that for the southern Broom.
The law that ye make shall be law, and I do not press my will,
Because ye are Sons of The Blood and call me Mother still."

to St. Paul's Cathedral, once more to render thanks to Almighty God for all His mercies.

This second Jubilee celebration was made the occasion for an imperial display, which reminded those who crowded the streets of London that the queen was the head of a world-wide empire. In the procession which wended its way to the great metropolitan cathedral there were "not only Englishmen, Scotsmen, Irishmen, Welshmen, but Mounted Rifles from Victoria and New South Wales, from the Cape, from Natal, from Canada. Here were Hausas from the Niger and the Gold Coast, coloured men from the West India regiments, zaptiehs from Cyprus, Chinamen from Hong-Kong, and Dyaks from British North Borneo. Here, most brilliant sight of all, were the Imperial Service troops, sent by the native princes of India; while the detachment of Sikhs, who marched earlier in the procession, received their full meed of admiration and applause."

Queen Victoria passed away in January 1901, and was succeeded by her eldest son as Edward the Seventh, whose uneventful reign closed in May 1910. His only surviving son then became king as George the Fifth.



Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, and Table Mountain.

Epilogue.

THE FLAG.*

BY THE EARL OF ROSEBERY.

WE begin with the Scottish flag. The Scottish flag was a blue ground with a white St. Andrew's Cross on it. You can see the blue ground and white cross, though one or two things have come over it since.

You all know that Scotland became united to England first by our King James the Sixth going and taking possession of England—which I am happy to think the Scottish have kept ever since—and then by the Treaty of Union in 1707. I apologize for the date—dates are horrid things.

And then we come to the flag of England. The flag of England was a white flag with a red cross on it—the Cross of St. George. And so, when the two flags were united, you had the Scottish blue flag with a white cross on it, and then over that there was the red cross of England coming right across it.

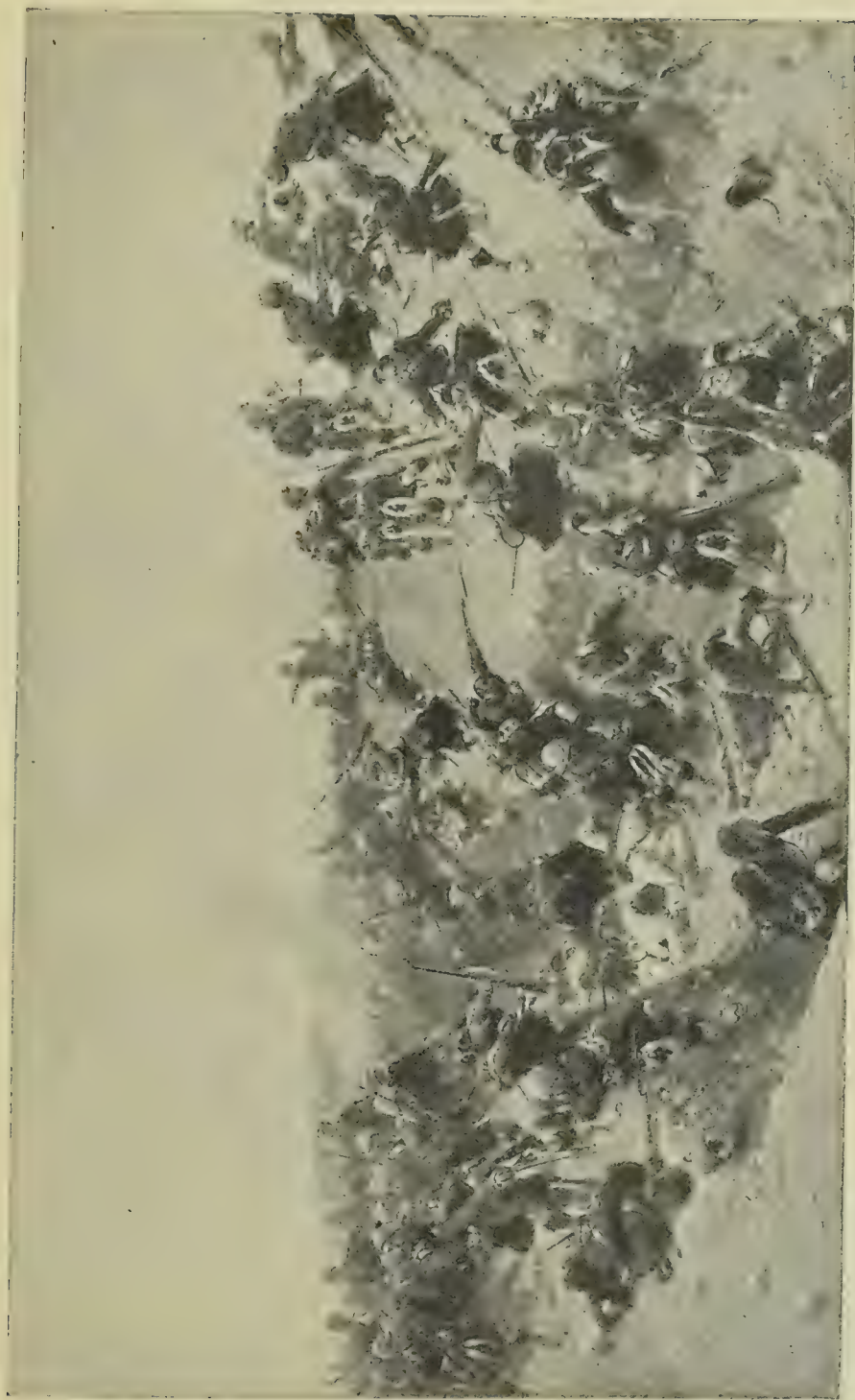
Then we united with Ireland. Ireland had a cross too—the Cross of St. Patrick. That was also a red cross on a white ground. So then you had to combine into one flag St. Andrew's white cross for Scotland, St. George's red cross for England, and St. Patrick's

* From an address delivered to the school children of Edinburgh in 1907.

red cross for Ireland. The inconvenience of St. Patrick's red cross was that it was just the shape of St. Andrew's cross, and so the only way in which they could fit the three crosses in was by putting the red St. Patrick's cross over the white Scottish St. Andrew's cross, and leaving quite enough of the white St. Andrew's cross to show that it had not been extinguished by the red cross of St. Patrick. Now I think you all understand—I am very stupid if you do not—the combination which is called the Union Jack.

Well, now, you know all the mechanism of the flag. What does that flag stand for? Of course, it stands for the United Kingdom and the British Empire. But if the United Kingdom were like some kingdoms, and if the British Empire were like some empires, we should not take the trouble to give you that flag to-day. It is because, as we think, it stands for justice, good government, liberty, and Christianity that we honour that flag.

It is spread all over the world. The British Empire is a greater empire at this moment, not only than any that have existed in the world before, but even greater than has ever been dreamt of in the world before. You may travel all the way, as I have done, from London to Australia. I forget how many thousand miles it is. It is either thirteen or fifteen thousand. But it is the longest journey, I suppose, that you can take in the world from one point to another.



THE BATTLE OF TEL-EL-KEBIR.

(From the picture by A. De Neuville. By permission of the Fine Art Society, owners of the copyright.)

Wherever we stopped on that journey we stopped under the British flag. We went from London to Gibraltar, and there was the Union Jack. We went from Gibraltar through the Suez Canal, touching at Egypt, and there was the British flag. We went on to Colombo, in the island of Ceylon: there was the British flag. And then we ended our long journey at the westernmost port in Australia, and there was the British flag. And so we knew wherever we saw this flag flying—even in Egypt, which had been misgoverned for countless centuries—that we should find liberty, justice, good government, equal dealing between man and man.

Now, then, that is what the flag means to all the world outside. There are a few people who hate Great Britain so much as not to know that that flag stands for what I say it does throughout the world. But for us, you children and all of us, it stands for a great deal more. What do we feel about that flag?

In the first place, we know this, that under no circumstances whatever must its unity ever be disturbed. It must never cease to be the Union Jack. I dare say Scotland has been a very troublesome neighbour to England sometimes, and England has been rather arbitrary to Scotland sometimes, and Ireland has been a little troublesome to both sometimes. But we are quite clear about this, that, as in



Canadian House of Parliament, Ottawa.

a family where brothers and sisters are apt to quarrel a little without disturbing their essential unity, that unity must be preserved.

Now, there is another point we must remember about this flag. It is not a thing simply to hang up and look at, and to treat as a symbol of justice and good government, and all that I have been saying—to watch languidly from an easy-chair, and say, ‘That is a very interesting object on the schoolhouse ; it waves very nicely in the wind, but it has very little to do with you or me.’

Why, it has everything to do with you and me. You boys may have to fight for it some day. Some of you may become soldiers, but even if you do not, some of you may join the Territorial Army. But whether you are soldiers or not, you may be invaded—God grant that it be not so—and then every one of you, whether you are soldiers or not, would have to do something to defend your country.

And the girls too. I do not ask them to fight ; but depend upon it that if this country were invaded they would find that they would have to suffer a good deal on behalf of the flag, and what I want them to remember is that the suffering would be worth it.

But without fighting, without struggling, you can all serve the flag by being good citizens and good citizenesses, by allowing nothing in your conduct to



Wellington, New Zealand.

disparage or lessen the character of the nation to which you belong. You can vote ; you can pay your taxes ; you can serve on all sorts of local assemblies. You can in a hundred ways promote the common good. There is no boy so small, no girl so small in this hall who by their conduct may not give credit and lustre to that flag.

Well, lastly, it represents to you a great honour and a great privilege. It reminds you that you are citizens of no mean city, and citizens of the greatest empire, as I have said, that the world has ever witnessed. You know what an inspiration is—though it is a longer word than I meant to use. It is something that seems to come from above, higher and better than yourself, that tends to make you higher and better than you usually are ; and I want you, when you see this flag waving in your school, to let it be an inspiration to you. If any of you at any time should be tempted, as we all are tempted, to do something mean, or base, or vile, or cowardly, look up to that flag and forbear.



Sydney, Australia.

APPENDIX.

Important Dates in British History

PART I.—THE FOUNDING OF THE NATION.

- B. C.
- 55 **Julius Cæsar's** first visit to Britain.
- A. D.
- 43 The actual Roman conquest of Britain begun by **Claudius**.
- 410 The Romans withdrew.
- 450 The Jutes effect a landing in Kent.
- 597 St. Augustine lands in Kent ; **conversion of King Ethelbert**.
- 787 First inroads of the **Norsemen** from North-western Europe.
- 827 Egbert of Wessex becomes **king of all England**.
- 871 **Alfred the Great** began to reign.
- 879 **Peace of Wedmore** ; division of the kingdom.
- 1016 **Cnut** becomes king of all England.
- 1042 **Edward the Confessor** comes from Normandy.
- 1066 **Earl Harold of Wessex** elected king on Edward's death.
- **Landing of William** at Pevensey, September 29. Battle of **Hastings** (Senlac), October 14.
- 1072 William exacted **homage from Malcolm** of Scotland.
- 1087 Death of William I. ; his son, **William II.** (Rufus), succeeded.
- 1100 Death of William II. ; accession of his brother **Henry I.**
- 1135 Death of Henry I. ; his nephew **Stephen** crowned.
- 1139 Civil war began between Matilda and Stephen.
- 1154 Death of Stephen ; **Henry II.**, son of Matilda, succeeded.
- Pope Adrian IV. granted the sovereignty of Ireland to Henry II.
- 1165 **William I. (The Lion)** succeeded Malcolm IV. in Scotland.
- 1170 Thomas Becket murdered in Canterbury Cathedral.
- **Richard Strongbow's** expedition to Ireland.
- 1174 William of Scotland captured at Alnwick.
- 1176 Travelling justices appointed ; **trial by jury** regularly established.
- 1189 Richard I. joined the **Third Crusade**.
- 1199 Death of Richard I. ; accession of his brother **John**.

- 1209 The Pope **excommunicated King John.**
- 1213 King John submitted to the Pope.
- 1215 **Magna Carta** granted.
- 1216 John died at Newark ; his son, **Henry III.**, succeeded.
- 1263 De Montfort took up arms against Henry III.
- 1264 Defeat of Henry at **Lewes.**
- 1265 De Montfort defeated and slain at **Evesham** (August).
- 1272 Death of Henry III. ; his son, **Edward I.**, succeeded.
- 1277 Edward I. invaded Wales ; Llewellyn submitted.
- 1284 **Wales** annexed to England by statute.
- 1291 Edward decided in favour of the claims of **John Balliol** to the Scottish crown.
- 1295 The **Model Parliament** met.
- Edward deposed John Balliol of Scotland.
- 1297 Scottish rebellion under **William Wallace.**
- 1298 Wallace defeated at **Falkirk.**
- 1305 Execution of **Wallace.**
- 1306 Robert Bruce crowned at Scone.
- 1307 Death of Edward I. ; accession of his son **Edward II.**
- 1314 Bruce's victory at **Bannockburn** over Edward II.
- 1327 Edward II. murdered in **Berkeley Castle** ; his son, **Edward III.**, succeeded.
- 1333 Edward III. defeated the Scots at **Halidon Hill.**
- 1346 Edward invaded France ; **Battle of Crecy.**
- David of Scotland defeated at **Neville's Cross.**
- 1347 **Calais** surrendered to the English.
- 1356 Victory of the Black Prince at **Poitiers.**
- 1377 Death of Edward III. ; accession of his grandson, **Richard II.**
- 1381 Rising of the commons under **Wat Tyler.**
- 1399 Deposition of Richard by Parliament ; Henry, Duke of Lancaster, crowned as **Henry IV.**
- 1403 The Percies and Owen Glendower defeated at **Shrewsbury.**
- 1413 Death of Henry IV. ; his son, **Henry V.**, succeeded.
- 1415 Henry's victory at **Agincourt.**
- 1422 Death of Henry V. ; accession of his son, **Henry VI.**
- 1429 The siege of Orleans raised by **Joan of Arc.**
- 1453 End of the French war ; England held Calais only.
- 1455 **Wars of the Roses** ; Yorkist victory at **St. Albans.**
- 1460 York defeated and slain at **Wakefield.**
- 1461 Edward, son of Richard of York, declared king as **Edward IV.**

- 1471 Edward defeated Warwick at **Barnet**, April 14.
- 1483 Death of Edward IV. ; accession of his son **Edward V.**
Richard, Duke of Gloucester, declared himself king.
- 1485 Henry, Earl of Richmond, proclaimed king as **Henry VII.**
- 1492 **Discovery of America** by Columbus.
- 1497 Vasco da Gama doubled the **Cape of Good Hope**.
- 1509 Death of Henry VII. ; accession of his son, **Henry VIII.**
- 1513 James IV. of Scotland killed at Flodden ; **James V.** succeeded.
- 1534 The authority of the Pope in England abolished by Parliament.
- 1542 Death of **James V.** of Scotland ; **Mary** succeeded.
- 1547 Death of Henry VIII. ; accession of his son, **Edward VI.**
- 1553 Death of Edward VI. ; **Mary I.**, daughter of Henry VIII.,
accepted as queen.
- 1557 The Scots signed the **First Covenant**.
- 1558 Death of Mary I. ; accession of her half-sister **Elizabeth**.
- 1567 **Surrender of Mary Queen of Scots** at Carberry Hill ;
her abdication ; her son proclaimed as **James VI.**
- 1568 Escape of Mary from Lochleven ; flight to England.
- 1587 **Execution of Mary Queen of Scots** at Fotheringay.
- 1588 Defeat of the **Spanish Armada**.
- 1603 Death of Elizabeth ; James VI. of Scotland becomes **James I.**
of England—**Union of the Crowns**.

PART II.—THE SETTLEMENT OF THE NATION.

- 1605 The **Gunpowder Plot**.
- 1606 The colony of Virginia established.
- 1612 Settlement of the East India Company at **Surat**.
- 1620 Landing of the **Pilgrim Fathers** in New England.
- 1625 Death of James ; his son, **Charles I.**, succeeded.
- 1634 The tax called **ship-money** revived.
- 1637 **Trial of John Hampden**.
- 1638 The **National Covenant** drawn up and signed by the Scots.
- 1641 **Impeachment of Strafford** ; attainder ; execution.
- 1642 Charles attempted the **arrest of the Five Members**.
- Indecisive **Battle of Edgehill** (October).
- 1643 Essex fought the **Battle of Newbury**.
- The "**Solemn League and Covenant**" signed (September).
- 1644 **Battle of Marston Moor** (July).
- 1645 Archbishop Laud executed (January).
- **Battle of Naseby** (June)—the king's forces utterly routed.

- 1649 | **Execution of King Charles** (January 30).
— | Cromwell in Ireland ; stormed Drogheda and Wexford.
- 1650 | Cromwell invaded Scotland, and won the **Battle of Dunbar**.
- 1651 | **Charles II.** crowned King of Scotland at Scone.
— | **Battle of Worcester** (September) ; Charles escaped to France.
- 1653 | **Cromwell made Lord Protector** (December).
- 1656 | **Parliament** offered Cromwell the title of king.
- 1658 | **Death of Oliver Cromwell**.
- 1660 | General Monk summoned a free Parliament.
— | Prince Charles entered London (May 29) as **Charles II.**
- 1665 | War declared against Holland.
- 1670 | The **Secret Treaty of Dover**.
- 1685 | Death of Charles II. ; his brother, **James II.**, succeeded.
- 1687 | The king issued a "**Declaration of Indulgence**."
- 1688 | **Trial of the Seven Bishops**.
— | **William of Orange** landed at Torbay (November).
- 1689 | **William and Mary** become king and queen.

PART III.—THE EXPANSION OF THE NATION.

- 1689 | **Battle of Killiecrankie**.
- 1690 | William victorious in the **Battle of the Boyne** (July).
- 1692 | The **Massacre of Glencoe**.
- 1702 | Death of William ; accession of **Anne**.
— | The **War of the Spanish Succession** began.
- 1704 | The **Battle of Blenheim**.
- 1706 | Marlborough defeated the French at **Ramillies**.
- 1707 | The **Act of Union** between England and Scotland passed.
- 1713 | Peace signed at **Utrecht**.
- 1714 | Death of Anne ; George, Elector of Hanover, succeeded as
— | **George I.**
- 1715 | The **First Jacobite Rebellion**.
- 1727 | Death of George I. ; **George II.** succeeded.
- 1740 | The **War of the Austrian Succession** began.
- 1745 | The **Second Jacobite Rebellion**.
- 1748 | The **Peace of Aachen** (Aix-la-Chapelle).
- 1756 | The **Seven Years' War** began.
- 1757 | Clive defeated Suraj-ud-Dowlah at **Plassey**.
- 1759 | **Wolfe's Victory on the Heights of Abraham**.
- 1760 | Death of George II. ; his grandson, **George III.**, succeeded.

- 1763 The **Peace of Paris** signed.
 1768 Captain Cook made his first voyage to Australia.
 1773 **Warren Hastings appointed first Governor-General of India.**
 1775 **Battle of Bunker Hill.**
 1776 The **American Declaration of Independence** (July 4).
 1777 Surrender of General Burgoyne at **Saratoga.**
 1778 **Death of Chatham.**
 1779 The great **Siege of Gibraltar** began.
 1781 Surrender of Lord Cornwallis at **Yorktown.**
 1783 The **Peace of Versailles** (January); independence of the United States of America recognized.
 — **William Pitt became Prime Minister.**
 1792 France declared a Republic.
 1793 **Execution of Louis XVI. of France** (January).
 1794 Lord Howe defeated the French fleet off Ushant.
 1797 Admiral Jervis defeated the Spanish fleet off **Cape St. Vincent.**
 — Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet off **Camperdown.**
 1798 **Rebellion of the United Irishmen** crushed at Vinegar Hill.
 — Admiral Nelson won the **Battle of the Nile.**
 1800 The **Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland.**
 1801 Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet at **Copenhagen.**
 1802 The **Peace of Amiens.**
 1804 Napoleon Bonaparte became **Emperor of the French.**
 1805 The **Battle of Trafalgar** (October); **Austerlitz** (December).
 1806 **Death of William Pitt** (January); **Battle of Jena.**
 1807 **Abolition of the Slave Trade.**
 1808 The **Spaniards rose against the French**; Sir Arthur Wellesley sent to Portugal.
 1809 The **Battle of Corunna**; Sir John Moore killed.
 — Wellesley drove Soult from Oporto, invaded Spain, and won the victory of **Talavera.**
 1810 Wellington retired behind the **lines of Torres Vedras.**
 1812 Wellington stormed **Ciudad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, and won the **Battle of Salamanca.**
 1813 Wellington gained the **Battle of Vitoria.**
 1814 The **First Peace of Paris**; Napoleon banished to Elba.
 1815 **Battle of Waterloo** (June).
 1820 Death of George III. ; succeeded by his son, **George IV.**
 1825 The Stockton and Darlington Railway opened.

- 1830 Death of George IV. ; succeeded by his brother, **William IV.**
 1832 **Russell's Reform Bill passed the Lords** (June).
 1833 **Slaves throughout the British colonies emancipated.**
 1837 Death of William IV. ; succeeded by his niece, **Victoria.**
 1838 The **Chartist** agitation began ; the " People's Charter."
 — The **Anti-Corn-Law League** formed.
 1840 The postal system radically improved by Rowland Hill.
 1841 **Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister.**
 1846 Peel carried the **Repeal of the Corn Laws.**
 — Peel resigned ; **Lord John Russell became Prime Minister.**
 1854 The **Crimean War** began (March).
 — The **Battle of the Alma** (September) ; **Sebastopol be-**
 sieged (October) ; **Battles of Balaklava and Inkerman.**
 1855 The **fall of Sebastopol** (September).
 1856 Crimean War closed by the **Treaty of Paris** (March).
 1857 The **Indian Mutiny.**
 1858 **Supremacy of the East India Company** ended ; India
 transferred to the Crown.
 1867 The **Dominion of Canada** formed.
 1877 The Transvaal annexed to the British Crown.
 1878 **War with Afghanistan.**
 1880 The Transvaal revolted ; **Majuba Hill.**
 1882 Bombardment of Alexandria ; the **Battle of Tel-el-Kebir.**
 1884 **General Gordon** killed in Khartum.
 1897 The **Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.**
 1898 **Imperial Penny Postage** sanctioned.
 — The **Battle of Omdurman** ; Khartum occupied.
 1899 The **Boer War** began (October) ; Lord Roberts appointed
 commander-in-chief in South Africa.
 1900 The **Federation of Australia** accomplished (January).
 — Lord Kitchener took command in South Africa ; peace signed,
 May 31, 1902.
 1901 **Death of Queen Victoria** (January 22) ; accession of
 Edward VII.

THE END.





